

THE UNIVERSITY OF MANITOBA

PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION AND  
JOB SATISFACTION AMONG TEACHERS

by

PATRICIA JEAN GRAY

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## ABSTRACT

This thesis examines the general hypothesis that because they desire more control over their occupational activities in the school system more professionally oriented teachers will be less satisfied with their influence on the decision making structure of the school system than will their less professionally oriented colleagues. This hypothesis is based upon the assumption that the increasing professional status of teachers involves an increase in the desire for power over their occupational activities not recognized as legitimate by school officials.

The conceptual framework, taken from Johnson's essay Professions and Power (1972), focuses on the source of the control exercised over the practitioner/client relationship as being the characteristic by which professions can be classified. Two of Johnson's three categories in his typology were utilized--mediative control and collegiate control. Teachers are seen as working towards collegiate control in which both the needs of the client and the manner in which they are met are determined by the teacher practitioner. Teaching has been characterized by mediative control where the practitioner/client relationship is controlled by a third party. This movement towards collegiate control is preceeded and supported by the development of a "professional orientation" amongst teachers. This was defined as the adoption by the



group of those characteristics deemed to be part of the public image of "a professional".

For the purposes of analysis a professional orientation was operationally defined in terms of teachers' self-reported adherence to professional standards rather than school rules; their self-reported exercise of discretion in relation to pupils rather than following school rules; and their self-reported involvement in professional activities. Satisfaction was defined in terms of the discrepancy between the influence teachers felt they should have, and the influence they felt they did have over decisions relating to three aspects of school administration--system wide changes; the hiring, firing and assignment of teachers; and autonomy in the classroom.

Three specific hypothesis were generated to test the general hypothesis. These were -

A professional orientation is inversely related to satisfaction with class room autonomy.

A professional orientation is inversely related to satisfaction with influence on administrators regarding colleague assignments.

A professional orientation is inversely related to satisfaction with administrative decisions regarding organizational change.

A professional orientation is not significantly related to satisfaction with the work setting.

The study was a secondary analysis of data collected in a survey of the St. Boniface School Division, Winnipeg, Manitoba. The operational hypotheses were tested using zero order, and first and third order partial correlations controlling for teachers' sex, education, and experience.

The results shown a statistically significant negative correlation between teachers' professional orientations and their satisfaction with their influence on decision making relative to system wide change, and to their classroom autonomy, the first and third specific hypotheses were therefore accepted. However the variances explained (3.6 per cent and 2.25 per cent) were very small.

The general hypothesis was accepted, and the conclusion drawn that more professionally oriented teachers are less satisfied with their influence on the decision making structure of the school system than their less professionally oriented colleagues, though the relationship was not a strong one in the school district studied. The implications of this conclusion for the education system and for future research were also considered.

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# CHAPTER I

## THE PROBLEM

### Introduction

A notable trait of our society is the degree to which occupations are attempting to become professionalized. The occupation of teaching is no exception to this trend. It is the general purpose of this thesis to explore, to a limited extent, the effects of professionalization upon teaching. More specifically the purpose is to consider, both conceptually and empirically, the effects of a professional orientation upon work satisfaction amongst teachers.

While a great deal has been written about professionals, and separately about work satisfaction, relatively little attention has been paid to the effects of a professional orientation upon work satisfaction. This is particularly true for the teaching occupation where professionalism has only recently begun to become a significant factor in determining the nature of the teachers' occupational role (Corwin 1970). Accordingly, in the following pages of this chapter, an overview of the problem of the nature of professionalization in teaching as well as teacher satisfaction, will be considered. From this discussion, a general hypothesis to guide the subsequent development of this study will be set forth.

## Professionalism and Teaching

While teachers generally regard the occupation of teaching as a profession, acceptance of their status as professionals is not as clearly established in the larger society as is that of the older professions (medicine and the law are usually regarded as the archetypes). Nor is the normal work context of teaching, which is almost exclusively within the formal organization of the school system, conducive to professional control of teaching activities. The process of increasing professionalization of teachers is therefore likely to involve some conflict with existing structural arrangements in the occupational field and some dissatisfaction on the part of teachers.

Several analysts have advanced evidence to suggest that teaching cannot be regarded as a fully professional activity. Etzioni (1964) describes teachers as semi-professionals on the grounds that their occupational lives are firmly based within the school organization. Wilensky (1964) describes them as marginally professional because this organizational context threatens the autonomy and service ideal he sees as the hallmark of the professional. Purvis (1973) sees the concept of a career as being an integral, essential component of a profession and argues that school teaching cannot be considered a profession because of the absence of this component.

Purvis elaborated the basis for her conclusion as resting upon both structural and attitudinal considerations.



Specifically, the structural limitations include the near absence of any vertical ladder for promotion. There are no higher positions open to teachers, with the exception of a few in administration, and these involve leaving active classroom teaching. Secondly, the authority structure of the school system, while it provides some autonomy for the teacher in the classroom, does not allow for involvement in important decision making--in this respect the teacher is treated more like an employee than a professional.

Attitudinal limitations noted by Purvis reflect the consequences of a heavy preponderance of females in the occupation and the concomitant social attitudes regarding women's employment. Purvis' views parallel those of Prather (1971), Coser and Rokoff (1971) and Blake (1974) in this regard. While male teachers also tend to lack a sense of commitment (leading them to consider alternatives to teaching if the opportunity arises) this, according to Purvis, appears to be more related to the structural variables (the lack of a professional ladder) than to attitudinal variables.

The question of occupational commitment was also considered analytically by Geer (1966). Her general conclusion was that teaching as an occupation has little to create a permanent sense of commitment to the occupation as a career. The training is (relative to other professions) not that arduous, and there is little opportunity to acquire extra skills through work. The teacher's clientele (the pupils and their parents) is mediated by the school administration and involuntary on both sides, the clients

are low status and do not belong uniquely to one teacher so the teacher can make no exclusive claim to successes. Further, according to Geer, teachers lack the opportunity to establish useful, prestigious relationships in their daily work, there is no audience for the teacher to adjudicate their performance and teachers lack opportunities for promotion.

These analytic arguments find a measure of support in the interpretations of the results of major studies on teaching by Corwin (1970) and Simpson (1969). Corwin, in his study of teachers, sees professionalization as a militant process attempting to gain occupational control from both administrators and the lay public. The lack of such control implies, for Corwin, the non-professional status of the teaching occupation (Corwin 1970:8). Simpson, in an exhaustive study of teacher professionalism, came to the general conclusion that, although teaching is not a profession mainly because it is a predominately feminine occupation (which carries many implications for teachers' professional orientations) teaching does offer opportunities for professionalism if teachers are professionally inclined (Simpson 1969:xii).

It is clear that the above analysts deny full professional status to the occupation of teaching because they are implicitly, or explicitly comparing teaching with some "ideal" profession, i.e. a trait model. This approach tends to be a-theoretical in that it defines a

profession by its distinguishing characteristics (Greenwood 1966) and points to the process by which an occupation becomes a profession through the acquisition of these characteristics in an orderly sequence (Wilensky 1964). The underlying assumption of this model is that occupational expertise is built on a base of systematic theoretical knowledge, which is subsequently used by members of the occupation for claiming professional autonomy. Such a sense of occupational autonomy and expertise is strengthened by the development of training schools and by professional associations which enforce professional norms. Subsequently, as seen from this perspective, these perceptions are encouraged by a professional culture and the concept of a professional career. Such norms include a belief in self regulation and colleague control. Professionals are also seen as characterized by a service ideal and dedication to work (Wilensky 1964:144; Scott in Etzioni 1969:82; Greenwood in Vollmer and Mills 1966:103; Millerson 1964:6).

The trait model however is subject to criticism on several grounds, including the major criticism that there is no tight logical reason why one trait or characteristic should be included or eliminated from the list of those characteristics assumed to typify a "professional occupation". Such a model implies a comparison with some "ideal" profession and suggests that the process of professionalization is a clearly recognizable progression towards some uniform end state. Finally, as a means of explaining professionals in

interaction with the rest of society, the trait model does not seem useful in pinpointing what are the key factors in that interaction because no one trait logically can be shown to be of prime importance.

Given the above limitations, it is reasonable to suggest that an alternative conceptual approach to the problem of professionalism generally, and the professional orientation of teachers specifically, may be more fruitful. Such an approach is hinted at by Wilensky, who suggested that the recent history of professionalization can be viewed as a means of gaining power or control over an occupation by its practitioners. In examining the process of professionalization he noted that occupations do not follow one course of development and that often "the whole effort seems more an opportunistic struggle for the rewards of monopoly than a natural history of professionalism". (Wilensky 1964:157). Perrucci, citing Wilensky, pointed out that "regardless of any model used to understand the professions, a basic resource that is necessary for the occupational group seeking to transform itself into a profession is power" (Perrucci 1971:495). Perrucci sees the basic source of the power commanded by the profession as found in the knowledge its practitioners have, and in the utility of that knowledge as it is applied to specific problems. This is the source of the power of the occupational group. The continuation of the power depends on the nature of the target group or users of the profession (Perrucci 1971:496). More recently in an essay

Professions and Power (1972) Terence J. Johnson also suggested that the key towards understanding those occupations generally regarded as professions is to look at them in terms of their power relations in society, their sources of power and authority and the ways in which they use them (Johnson 1972:18).

Viewed from this perspective, wherein professionalization is seen to be primarily the process by which an occupation gains control over its role performance, the results of the previous analyses and studies cited can be interpreted to suggest that the process of teacher professionalization, although of limited success, is an integral part of the contemporary occupational milieu of teaching. One major structural factor that thwarts the "full" development of teachers' professionalism is that their work is entirely within the school system. The organizational structure of that system has been termed bureaucratic (Katz 1964; Corwin 1967), and involved in this mode of organization is the designation of power to a hierarchy of offices. Teachers as a group within this organizational structure lack access to the decision making offices, and, therefore, lack the power to control their own occupational activities because of the control exercised over them within the organization. Additionally, given the preponderance of women in the teaching occupation, with their inherent role conflicts and relatively lower career commitment, the success of the occupational members in gaining control over their work setting is limited.

While other factors may also be important, these two appear to explain in some degree the limited success of teachers in attaining full professional status in the larger society.

Turning to the concept of power as it is involved in this view of professionalization, Weber defines power as "...the probability that one actor within a social relationship will be in a position to carry out his own will despite resistance, regardless of the basis on which this probability rests" (Weber 1947:152). Weber is careful to distinguish power from authority which he sees as "the probability that a command with a given specific content will be obeyed by a given group of persons" (Weber 1947:152). Authority then is power institutionalized, that is contained and controlled by the social structure (or organization) within which it is exercised. As Hage and Aiken note, within such a setting power is never a one way street but more appropriately can be seen as an "equation" in every set of social actions which must account for the differential power of all participants in the setting (Hage and Aiken 1970:19). Seen in this perspective the process of professionalization refers to the efforts on the part of a specific occupational group (teachers) to gain control over their occupational activities (teaching) by altering the power equation in the work setting (schools); that is they want the distribution of legitimate power, or authority, over decision making to be changed in their favour.

If the above interpretation of the nature of the thrust towards professional status within the occupation of teaching is correct then it is reasonable to assume that a potential exists for conflict within any school system--a conflict focusing upon a desire for control over work activities and on the basic nature of the authority structure within the educational bureaucracy. Furthermore, to the extent that teachers have a professional orientation, and are frustrated in the desire to realize it in their occupational role, it is reasonable to assume that dissatisfaction will increase.

#### Teaching and Job Satisfaction

The second major variable involved in this study is job satisfaction. The concept of job satisfaction appears in the literature to relate to two aspects which can be separated analytically. Satisfaction can be expressed in relation to the organizational, or structural, characteristics of the job (such as pay, hours of work, promotion prospects, decision making opportunities, supervision). Job satisfaction can also be related to the everyday opportunities and social relationships provided by the work setting.

Factors in the organizational structure which have been related to job satisfaction have been the level of supervision (Blau and Scott 1962:151; Argyle 1954; Likert 1961); the incentive conditions of pay, status, promotion and security (Argyle 1972); the possibility of promotion (Argyle 1972:232); the number of levels in the organizational hierarchy and the

consequent level of communication (Blau and Scott 1962:243); and the opportunities to make decisions (Katz and Kahn 1966: 370-371; Argyle 1972:235).

The degree of satisfaction in the work setting has been related to the routine sameness of work on the assembly line (Blau and Scott 1962:180; Walker and Guest 1952), and to the nature of the work group, its cohesiveness, size and opportunities for interaction (Argyle 1972).

Several studies have shown that work satisfaction or job satisfaction among the occupational groups in our society is highest for the professional group followed by the managerial occupations. Semi-skilled and unskilled are the least satisfied (Blauner 1960; Gurin, Veroff and Feld 1960). Blauner listed the prestige of the job and control of working conditions as two of the reasons for the fact that professionals head the list of satisfied workers. This is in line with the findings of the studies cited above because prestige is a term which can be considered an index for a variety of factors - skill, degree of education or training, amount of control or responsibility involved in performance of work, and pay. Also to be able to control the pace and organization of work, as professionals can, is felt by most workers to be desirable.

Studies that relate specifically to teachers and their job satisfactions are few. Carpenter (1971) found teachers in flat organizations (schools with few levels in the hierarchy) perceived a higher level of job satisfaction than their counterparts in tall or medium organizational types.



Becker (1952) cites the frequent movement of teachers from lower class slum schools to better middle class neighborhood schools as movement simply to increase job satisfaction in terms of pupil teachability, discipline and moral acceptability (Becker 1952:562-563). Harolick (1968) found that the principal's compliance with specific work related norms held by the teacher, specifically that he be a good disciplinarian and stand up for teachers against parents and students, was more important to her satisfaction than the degree of democratic behavior he exhibited in administrative matters.

In a study comparing several sources of satisfaction Lortie found that teachers gained their greatest satisfaction from intrinsic rewards rather than extrinsic sources, especially knowing that they have "reached the students and they have learned" (Lortie 1969:32). Simpson found that opportunities for sociability, and friendly supportive behavior by the principal were the variables most strongly associated with teacher satisfaction (Simpson 1969:xiv)

These studies suggest that teachers' satisfaction is governed by both the organizational structure of the school system and by the work setting within a particular school. The two are not unrelated. However there is utility in separating them analytically even though the administration has an obvious impact on the work going on within schools. If the process of professionalization involves a desire for influence and control over occupational activities, as has

been argued, then the frustrating of such a desire will create a sense of dissatisfaction with the organizational structure which does not allocate decision making to the teachers.

### Professional Orientation and Job Satisfaction

Drawing upon the brief preceeding discussion of the nature of professionalism and job satisfaction (which will be more fully developed in Chapter III), it is reasonable to adduce that a) while the occupation of teaching has not gained recognition as a profession b) to the extent that teachers hold a professional orientation they will aspire to gain more control (i.e. power) over their occupational roles than presently obtains and c) are therefore likely to be less satisfied, on the average, with their current status in the school than their less professionally oriented colleagues. Accordingly the general hypothesis that will guide the subsequent analysis is as follows.-

The more professionally oriented teachers will be less satisfied with their role in the school system than their less professionally oriented colleagues.

### Outline of Analysis

Chapter II will present a review of previous research in the areas of a) teacher professionalism b) teachers' job satisfaction and c) the organizational characteristics of the educational system as they relate to teacher authority and power. Following this, in Chapter III, a conceptual model of professionalism in the occupation of teaching will be set forth, resting on the

basic assumption that the thrust towards professionalism in an occupation reflects a desire for more control over occupational activities. This in turn will be related to the job satisfaction of teachers. From this model specific hypotheses will be deduced, the confirmation of which will provide support for the general hypothesis guiding this study. Chapter IV will discuss the data gathered to empirically test the specific hypothesis, as well as present and discuss the statistical techniques employed. Chapter V will present the results of the analysis, and Chapter VI will summarize those results and consider their implications for the problem discussed above.

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

#### Introduction

Having stated that the purpose of this thesis is that of exploring the effects of a professional orientation upon work satisfaction among teachers, consideration was given, in Chapter I, to an overview of the nature of the problem. In this chapter the results of a more intensive examination of major previous research efforts on a professional orientation and work satisfaction among teachers will be reported. It should be noted that while the discussion to follow is not based upon an "exhaustive" review of all possible literature on the subject, it does seek to set forth the results of the major studies on the subject available to the author.

#### Teaching as a Profession

One of the few major empirical studies which evaluates teaching as a professional occupation was done by Simpson (1969). Not all of Simpson's findings are relevant to this study but he did attempt to assess the degree to which professional attitudes prevail in teaching, as well as the meaning of these attitudes for the organization of the school system.

Simpson defined a profession as an occupation characterized by abstract knowledge, individual autonomy, and colleague control, and professionalism as an orientation towards specialized knowledge, a desire for autonomy and the

use of colleagues as the dominant reference group. (Simpson 1969:I-5). Data for the study was collected by questionnaire from 9688 school teachers, and 3189 undergraduates in 4 year colleges and universities, in N.Carolina and a metropolitan school district in another state. To analyze the data Simpson mainly cross-tabulated the questionnaire responses as percentages, with a difference of 5% or more in the dependent variable between categories of the independent variable regarded as a meaningful difference. Some responses on the questionnaire were combined to give indices on specific items.

The first part of Simpson's analysis was designed to answer the question "Are teachers professionals?". Simpson's general conclusion was that they are not. Using data from the questionnaire relating to attitudes and behavior which reflect a professional orientation, Simpson comments that teachers "do not give the impression of a group aflame with professional enthusiasm" (Simpson 1969:III-5). Nor did he find much evidence that exposure to teacher training had had a professionalizing effect upon the education students in his sample (Simpson 1969:III-11)

Subsequently, Simpson endeavoured to establish which background characteristics go with professionalism where it exists. Using attitudes and behaviors which he designates as "professional" (i.e. knowledge orientation,

autonomy, occupational reference group orientation, intrinsic work commitment and career satisfaction), Simpson found little relationship between a professional orientation and sex or grade level taught although men and secondary school teachers were slightly more professional. Some differences were found between teachers from urban and rural backgrounds, as well as between teachers from different social status backgrounds. No one group however outranked the others on all aspects of professionalism. (1969:xiii-xiv).

Reasoning that a professional atmosphere in the school would have a professionalizing effect on the individuals exposed to it, Simpson tested the hypothesis that the most professionalized schools would have the most professional teachers. School professionalism was measured by aggregating the scores of teachers on professional zeal, bureaucratic submission, colleague reference group orientation, holistic service index, and the future career commitment of women teachers. Using these measures to classify schools, Simpson then considered aspects of teachers' professionalism in relation to them. Simpson found no relationship between professionalism of schools and the professionalism of teachers (1969:III-36).

Other findings of Simpson's relevant to our concern, had to do with the effects of integration into a colleague group on professional attitudes among teachers. Reasoning

that professional concerns may be the focal point for a collective integration of teachers, Simpson's analysis revealed that to the extent such a focal point exists, it centers upon a "holistic service orientation" rather than professional concerns. Such an orientation Simpson defines as a general concern on the part of teachers to relate to the student as a whole person. This is opposite of course, to Simpson's view of a professional orientation which requires emotional neutrality in dealing with clients. (1969:VI-39-44).

Simpson's major general conclusion is that teaching is not a profession. While several possibilities are considered by Simpson as reasons for this situation, he suggests the major reason is that teaching is a predominately female occupation. In support of his interpretation of the results of his analysis, Simpson argues that his results are consistent with typical female orientations which render teaching less professional. Thus women's self-images are built round the family and their orientations are, therefore, towards the family rather than a career. Further, women are characterised by a compliant disposition and deference to men, they desire a friendly work atmosphere, have a holistic service orientation, lack colleague reference groups and collegial authority orientations. (Simpson 1969:VI-27-40). It is in part because of this, according to Simpson, that the school organization caters to these attitudes by being run like

a bureaucracy with hierarchial authority and rules, and men typically occupying the higher positions in the hierarchy (1969:45).

Other studies tend to support Simpson's general conclusion. Thus, in a study of 442 education students at Paterson State College in New Jersey, Weil and Weil (1971) found no strong indication of a professional orientation. Using questionnaire data on attitudes and values Weil and Weil's analysis revealed only a small percentage (19%) of their respondents scored high on professional orientation. There was no consistent pattern in the attitudes and values held and students' professional orientation (defined in a matter similar to that of Simpson). They reported that, among their subjects, a professional orientation was not related to the social class background or the sex of the respondent, although women subjects who scored high on home-making attitudes and values scored low on professional attitudes and values.

In another study relating to these concerns, Pavalko (1970) reported the results of a 7 year longitudinal study of 10,320 Wisconsin high school graduates. Findings relating to the 437 girls who became teachers show that marital status was the factor most strongly related to teacher attrition. Of the married teachers only 45.8% were still working in the occupation, while 90% of the unmarried teachers were working. (1970:350).



Thus, from the above studies, it would appear that teachers, as a group, are not particularly oriented to professionalism either initially or subsequently in their occupational role performance. However, as Simpson suggests, the potential is certainly there, with some evidence that it is becoming more important, as is evident in the following study by Corwin.

The intent of Corwin's study was to explore the dynamics of teachers' militancy in the schools, (1970:5). For Corwin, "professionalism" is seen to be a drive for status, representing the efforts of some members of a vocation to control and monopolise their work, (1970:8). He suggests that an emerging profession such as teaching must, by the very nature of professionalisation, achieve more authority over the policies that govern its work (1970:13). Thus he saw professionalism as potentially a major factor in teacher militancy and organizational conflict. Using data collected from 2,000 teachers and administrators by interview and questionnaire techniques in 24 mid-western U.S. high schools, Corwin sought to isolate the organizational dynamics of teacher militancy and conflict in the schools, as well as the characteristics of more professionally oriented teachers.

Corwin found among his sample that the average teacher was involved in 2.3 conflicts per year, half of which had to do with authority issues (1970:230). School rates of

conflict were determined by summing ; the number of such conflicts for each schools faculty. In analysing the organizational roots of discord in the school, Corwin reports that the three most discordent schools were characterised by few members in professional associations, high average professional orientation, low employee orientation, more social relations among staff, negative attitudes towards the principal, more job satisfaction, the schools were larger and more bureaucratic, more heterogeneous with a higher staff turnover, and decentralized routine decision making. In contrast the three most tranquil schools in his sample had a client oriented staff with low average professional orientations, and high employee orientations, satisfied with careers and with positive attitudes towards the principal. Such schools had close supervision with a greater emphasis upon following administrative rules. (Corwin 1970:248).

Corwin went on to explore the argument that bureaucracy grows in response to conflict in the organizational environment. Examining the organizational context, he found that most measures of staff conflict increase with the average professional orientation of the faculty, with the exception that major conflicts become less frequent as a faculty's professionalism increases. Both findings were more characteristic of more bureaucratic schools than of less bureaucratic ones. So, also, Corwin found that in more professional schools both the total rate of disagreement and

incidents between teachers and administration increase directly with bureaucratization. This Corwin interprets as suggesting the existence of a reciprocal dynamic relationship and that, at least with schools, increasing bureaucratic control may be introduced as a reaction to conflict resulting from the professional drive of the faculty. This relationship operates differently in different contexts. Thus while bureaucracy may help to contain conflict in less professional schools, it may aggravate conflict in more professional schools (1970:297, 314).

Turning to the individual level, Corwin reports that the 200 most professionally oriented teachers in his sample have higher rates of conflict, while conversely a weaker professional orientation is associated with less involvement in conflicts, (1970:181). However, this finding is reversed for major conflicts. Corwin qualified his findings by noting that even amongst the 200 most professionally orientated teachers, less than half had been involved in overt conflicts, and many of the militant teachers are not especially professionally oriented. In his discussion of the main issues involved in the study Corwin reports that a vast majority of the teachers want more control over their work - not less, a fact not generally acknowledged by the administration.

Another significant study dealing with professionalism in the schools is that of Massé (1969). Massé was

particularly interested in the relationship between a professional orientation among teachers and their desire for participation in school affairs. Massé gathered data from 655 members of the Corporation des Enseignants du Québec. Using factor analytic methods he developed two measures of professionalism - a measure of professional orientation towards knowledge and service, and a professional authority scale to measure the inclination to make professional decisions independently. The two participation scales measured preferred and actual (perceived) levels of participation in decisions of a professional nature. He found a significant difference between the two levels (perceived and preferred) of participation. His findings indicate a significant positive relationship between teachers' scores on the professional authority scale and their score on the preferred participation scale, although this significant relationship did not hold between scores on the professionalism scale (relating to knowledge and service) and scores on the preferred participation scale (1969:92).

Massé concludes that the decision making structure of the school, particularly that aspect which relates to decisions of a professional nature, are in conflict with teachers' drive for greater autonomy. Massé suggests that his findings also support the argument that teachers want authority to ensure that society will have the best skilled

service possible in that he found that teacher orientation towards service and knowledge was significantly related to their orientation towards professional authority. Massé suggests that other factors, not included in his study, such as teachers' present satisfaction with the actual decision making structure of the schools, may explain the lack of a relationship between professionalism as he measured it and the desire for participation (1969:102).

Summarizing, to this point, both Simpson and Corwin note the relative absence of a strong professional orientation among teachers. However both suggest the significance of such an orientation for teachers. Corwin in particular suggests much of the basis for conflict within contemporary school organizations derives from the more professional teachers' desire for increased autonomy and authority in significant areas of the educational process. Massé's findings offer further support for Corwin's contention that many teachers desire a more active voice in the authority structure of the school than they presently have. This desire for greater influence on the part of the teachers has been the subject of several studies and will be considered next in this review.

Recognizing the growth of educational bureaucracy Moeller and Charters (1966) sought to investigate its implications for teachers sense of power. Hypothesizing that teachers in highly bureaucratized school settings would

have a lower sense of power than their colleagues in less bureaucratized settings, Moeller and Charters drew a sample of teachers from 20 school systems in the Saint Louis metropolitan area. Contrary to their hypothesis, teachers in highly bureaucratized settings were found to have a greater sense of power than their colleagues in less bureaucratized settings. Nor was this finding altered by controlling for sex, social class, teaching level and length of service. As an explanation for their findings it was suggested by Moeller and Charters that school systems employment practices may differentiate, according to unspecified attributes, and teachers selected for employment in highly bureaucratic settings differed from those selected for employment in less bureaucratic settings in those attributes.

In a later study Meyers (1972) used data from 30 Illinois school districts selected by random sample based on size of teaching staff. Information obtained from 449 principals and 954 teachers showed that bureaucratization of the school system was not significantly related to the teachers' sense of power to influence the course of events in the school system. Meyers used ten separate dimensions of bureaucracy and related them to teachers' sense of power. Specialization was the only dimension found to be related (1973:3). Meyers, in his discussion of the results, queries whether the traditional Weberian components of the bureaucratic model as he used it are appropriate to the school system (1972:3).

On the socio-psychological level, a study by Muth focuses on the effects of the exercise of different types of power. Corwin found that half of the conflicts in the schools he studied were between teachers and administrators. Muth in his study (no date) offers evidence that variant types of power exercised by administrators creates dissimilar results, specifically that coercion is related to conflict, and influence to consensus. Muth delineated three sub-categories of the concept power, coercion, authority and influence which he conceptualized as being on a continuum. Similarly he conceptualized conflict and consensus as being on a continuum. Using questionnaire data from a sample of 366 teachers in 35 high schools in Illinois, Muth constructed two separate scales to measure problems, conflicts and tensions in schools. Muth's primary hypotheses were that coercion was positively related to conflict, influence was positively related to consensus, and authority was positively, though not strongly, related to consensus. His analysis of the data support these hypotheses. Muth also anticipated that various social psychological and social background traits of teachers would influence their perceptions of conflict and consensus in their schools, e.g. he expected teachers with a greater degree of professional orientation would be more likely to perceive conflict in their schools, also that the more experienced teacher would be less likely to see conflict.

Muth reports that the most striking finding was that the older, more experienced teacher saw less conflict. Conversely young unmarried women were more likely to see conflict. This he explained in terms of adaptation to the organization (p.3).

In a related study Gans (1968) examined the degree to which the structural openness of the school organization and personal disposition of the teachers was related to the occurrence of militant conflict within or against the school organization. His concept of structural openness was a composite of teachers' perceptions of vertical and lateral openness of communications, and of the quality and amount of communication, the degree of participation in organizational decision making by teachers, and the degree of influence that they can exert on the direction of organizational goals and methods. Gans defined militancy as behavior characterised by the use of combative tactics, individually or as part of group action, in a struggle for power between teachers and school authorities. He defines initiative as potential militancy.

Data was obtained from a sample of schools in the San Francisco area (386 teachers and others). Gans reports a negative relationship between structural openness and militancy among people in the high initiative category that is, those disposed to militant action (1968:20). The relationship was not nearly as strong for those in the low initiative category (1968:20). There was no significant



difference between men and women on structural openness and militancy. A strong relationship was found between structural openness and school size, larger schools were perceived as more open, (1968:26).

Factors relating to the desire for participation in decision making were also studied by Alutto and Belesco (1972). Using 454 teachers in school districts in western New York state as subjects, data was gathered on the degree of participation actually experienced, as well as on the participation desired, in 12 decisional situations. Alutto and Belesco defined "decisional participation" as the difference between the number of decisions in which an individual desires to participate and the number in which he actually participates. They defined three levels of participation, decisional deprivation (participation in fewer decisions than desired), decisional equilibrium and decisional saturation, and related these to the background characteristics of the teachers. They found that the decisionally deprived were young, less senior males teaching at the secondary level, experiencing a high degree of role conflict, favourable to collective bargaining, strikes, unions and militancy, and wanting a lower level of influence for the superintendent and principal.

The decisionally saturated teachers, were older senior females wanting higher influence for the principal and superintendent, experiencing moderate role conflict and moderately against unions and militancy, and teaching in urban elementary schools. Those in equilibrium were

medium age, senior females experiencing low role conflict, low on militancy, teaching in urban elementary schools and preferring a higher level of influence for the principal and superintendent.

One of the strongest relationships found by Alutto and Belesco was that the most militant teachers were those decisionally deprived. This, they argued, provided strong support for the hypothesis that unfulfilled desires for participation in decision making provide the basis for much of the current militancy among professionals - an argument supported by the previously discussed findings of Corwin (1970) and Gans (1968).

#### Teacher Satisfaction

That a wide variety of factors can be related to teachers' satisfaction is clearly shown from the following studies. This review is not exhaustive but focuses primarily upon authority and influence within the school, as well as demonstrating the various levels at which sources of teacher satisfaction may be considered.

After stating that studies in sales, industry and voluntary organizations have demonstrated that employees' satisfaction is related to their perception of the extent to which they can influence certain aspects of the organizational decision making, Horstein, Callahan, Fisch and Benedict (1968) collected questionnaire data from 325 primary school teachers in two separate school districts to see whether this was true of teacher satisfaction. Their findings suggest that the effects of superior-subordinate relations in the school

system are very much like those of various industrial, sales and voluntary organizations. Teachers report greater satisfaction with their principal and school system when they perceive that they and their principals are mutually influential, especially when the principal's power to influence emanates from their perceiving him as an expert (1968:389).

Bridges (1964), using questionnaire data collected from teachers and principals in 28 schools in the U.S., studied teacher participation in decision making. Teachers completed questionnaires on participation, job satisfaction, attitudes towards supervision, index of support from the principal, and need for independence. Testing the hypothesis that the stronger the teacher's need for independence the greater the extent to which his participation in decision making would produce a more favourable attitude towards his principal, Bridges found that, although this was true for all teachers, teachers with a high need for independence were less satisfied with the principal than those with a low need, regardless of the extent of participation.

Testing the parallel hypothesis that teachers with a strong need for independence would have a greater desire for participation in decision making affecting their work situation and that this would lead to a favorable attitude towards the work situation Bridges found no relation. Of the teachers in the sample, 89 per cent indicated a high level of

satisfaction. In interpreting his findings, Bridges comments that it appears that teachers with a high need for independence found the presence of an authority figure thwarting to their desire for autonomy - regardless of the extent to which the principal encouraged participation. Bridges also found that teachers' attitudes towards the principal seemed to be more strongly influenced by the principal's support for them against parents and pupils than anything else.

Corwin, in the study previously discussed, focused on the clash between two principles of organizing work. Corwin argued that the rising professional orientation of teachers which in his terms involved a desire to control working activities, involved a clash with the bureaucratic structure of the school. Among other things, Corwin discussed the outcome of this clash for the satisfaction of the teachers. No direct relationship was found between a professional orientation and job satisfaction. Interestingly, however, he found that a high incidence of conflict was positively associated with individual job and career satisfaction. He suggested that possibly only those already satisfied with their career are concerned enough to become involved in conflicts, or, alternatively, that satisfaction is derived from the feeling of being actively involved in some issue that is considered important (Corwin 1970:178,186). At the faculty level, job satisfaction increased with conflict between teachers and

administrators. However, job satisfaction did not increase with the ratio of major incidents, and career satisfaction declined with involvement in major incidents (1970:277).

Corwin found an increase in the number of incidents of conflict with increased bureaucratization but provided that the conflict stayed at a low level it positively contributed to satisfaction. Carpenter's findings imply the opposite. Carpenter (1971) studied the relationship between the formal organizational structure and the perceived job satisfaction of teachers. Carpenter classified school districts "tall", "medium" and "flat" according to the number of steps in the hierarchy. 20 classroom teachers, a random sample, from each organizational type, participated from six school systems in Texas. Teachers in flat organizations perceived a higher job satisfaction than their counterparts in tall or medium organizational types in three areas; community prestige, professional authority, and participation in determining school goals. Perceptions related to teacher autonomy and professional authority were more sensitive than other areas to organizational structure variables. Satisfaction scores of teachers were significantly lower as the steepness of the organizational structure increased. Generally the more administrative levels existed between higher administrative positions and teachers, the more these positions were perceived by the incumbents as restrictive, regimented and formalized.

The mixed findings of these studies may be due to a variety of factors. One factor mediating between the formal organizational properties and the teachers' sense of satisfaction may be the leadership style of the principal.

Leadership styles and their relationship to teacher satisfaction, as mediated by teachers normative expectations, were investigated by Harolick (1968). She defined a democratic leader as one who allows the group members some participation in decision making processes, who is available to give and receive advice, and who gives praise based on standards of performance known to group members. The autocratic leader is operationally defined as the opposite. Harolick states that two important norms that teachers hold regarding the principal are that he should "back up" the teacher against parents and in front of pupils, and that he should be a good disciplinarian.

Data for the study was obtained from analysis of questionnaire responses of 1,250 white teachers in 108 North Carolina elementary schools. Harolick found a stronger relationship between the principal's compliance with the teachers' norms as listed above and her work satisfaction, than between satisfaction and the principal's style of leadership. Harolick suggests that the reason for this is that the crux of the teachers' satisfaction is a sense of providing good teaching - good discipline in the classroom is crucial to the achievement of this and

the principal's backing on authority matters is seen as more important than his democratic leadership. (1968:44).

This finding on the teachers' need for support in discipline matters is supported by Yuskiewicz and Donaldson in their study (1972) which focused on the congruence between a teacher's control ideology relating to her pupils, and that which she perceives colleagues and her principal as having. Data was gathered from six Pennsylvania school districts. Questionnaires were employed to gather information from 473 elementary and 437 secondary teachers. Where the control ideologies were perceived as congruent job satisfaction was high. This finding was found to be highly significant for both elementary and secondary teachers.

Ki-Suck Chung (1970) in a study of 21 public schools in South East Michigan, using self-report questionnaires returned by 499 teachers, found that a high teacher-centered management style of leadership behavior by the principal (as perceived by the teacher) and high job satisfaction are significantly related (1970:19). A teacher centered management style was characterised by the teachers as providing sharing in decision making, less close supervision of role performance, high administrative support of teachers' professional growth, strong personal relationships and accessible relationships. The findings were evidence to support Chang's contention that this style

served to reduce the incompatibility between the socio-psychological needs of the teachers and the monocratic/bureaucratic management patterns of educational organizations.

Results from these studies exhibit some confusion, due in part to the different dimensions considered and measures used. That some relationship exists between the structural arrangements that permit participation and satisfaction is demonstrated. It is also clear that satisfaction is a multidimensional factor and that it derives from more than just the opportunity to participate in decision making. It appears that it is related to a whole complex of social relations, including support from the principal (Harolick, Chung, Bridges, Yuskiewicz and Donaldson) and from colleagues (Yuskiewicz and Donaldson).

The need for supportive relationships is confirmed by McPherson, discussed below, and is consistent with Simpson's findings. McPherson (1972), while teaching in a small (200 pupil) rural New England elementary school, did a participant observation study. The main insight gained from McPherson's account of teaching at Adams Elementary School is of the vagueness and lack of definition as to the goals towards which the teachers work. Consequently, teachers in the school came to view teaching as a frustrating and painful activity. External rewards and objective recognition were important to the teacher but she believed that she received little of them. There



were no possibilities of upward mobility at Adams, except by leaving teaching and moving into the administration or to become active within the professional association. The anti-professional attitude of the Adams teacher made the latter choice an uncommon avenue. As for internal satisfactions, the Adams teacher was portrayed as being very service minded and wanting to do a good job but, with the goals ill defined, this was not possible. Colleagues were supportive and social contact with them was actively sought but this was strongest for the established teacher. For the beginning teacher the socialization process into the teaching role was very nebulous, forcing the new teacher to find her own solutions despite her appeals for help.

Simpson (1969) in the study on teachers as professionals already discussed, questioned what motivates teachers and what aspects of their work do provide them with satisfaction. He found that teachers characteristically have employee or job orientations rather than professional orientations and seek primarily sociable and supportive working conditions. His findings supported the hypothesis that teachers whose role-set relations give opportunities for sociability and protected them against harsh demands were more satisfied with their jobs than other teachers. In particular, supportive behavior by the principal was found to be the variable most strongly associated with teacher satisfaction (Simpson 1969:V-9).

That relations between the teacher and the pupils is of prime importance to the teacher was confirmed in a study on the rewards of teaching done by Lortie. All teachers (over 3000) in the Dade County School system participated in answering a self-administered questionnaire (1969:52). Teachers were asked to choose between three types of rewards, extrinsic (salary, respect from others, the chance to use influence); intrinsic (the chance to study for classes, discipline, class management, the knowledge that they have "reached" students, the opportunity to associate with children and with teachers); and ancilliary rewards (security, free time, freedom from rivalry, "appropriateness for people like me"). An overwhelming number, 77 per cent chose the intrinsic category as being the most important, and, within that category, 86 per cent chose "knowing that I have reached students and they have learned" as the most important (Lortie 1969:32).

The findings of these studies on the factors that provide teachers with satisfaction are very mixed. The opportunity to be influential in decision making is obviously appreciated by teachers (Hornstein et al; 1968, Bridges. 1964, Chung 1970) but it would seem that the authority structure of the school is frustrating to many teachers (Bridges 1964, Carpenter 1971, Corwin 1969). Corwin's findings are interesting in that he found conflict at a minor level, positively associated with satisfaction.

His explanation for this suggests that teachers enjoy the challenge of being actively involved even though the situation involves disagreement. This would be consistent with the findings of studies on teachers desire for participation.

Teachers in a school or classroom situation are faced with a large number of pupils who, being immature and potentially unruly, need consistent control exercised over them to enable the teacher to teach. This fact probably explains the teachers' strong desire for supportive relations with other adult members of the school community (Harolick 1968, Yuskiewicz and Donaldson 1972; Chung 1970; McPherson 1972; Simpson 1969). At the same time teaching is seen as a "rewarding" occupation in that close emotional ties with the pupils is a source of strong satisfaction to teachers (Harolick 1968, Lortie 1969, Simpson 1970).

Overall, the review of the relevant research literature on the question of teacher professionalism and job satisfaction leads to several tentative conclusions. First, it is apparent that little evidence exists to suggest a uniformly shared professional orientation among teachers. At the same time, sufficient numbers of teachers do hold such an orientation to ensure its importance in either latent or manifest conflicts within many schools. Second, conflicts emerging from such an orientation do appear to be directly related to the teachers desire for more influence in the decision-making process of the school

(although the relationship between a professional orientation and the desire for such influence is not clear). Third, as suggested by Massé (1969) and Corwin (1970), the professional orientation of teachers, to the extent it is operative among the faculty of a school, does conflict with the organizational principle of authority underlying a bureaucracy. Fourth, teachers collectively display a degree of ambivalence regarding authority and their role in the educational decision-making process. While desiring participation, they also want a strong and supportive principal, thus, their "job satisfaction" relative to their role in the authority structure of the school is unclear.

### CHAPTER III

#### THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

In Chapter I it was noted that relatively little attention had been given to the effects of a professional orientation upon worker satisfaction. This general observation, in turn, was related to what was seen to be the current thrust of teachers towards a professional occupational status, and it was hypothesised that the more professionally oriented teachers would be less satisfied with their occupational role in the school than those teachers who were less professionally oriented. Subsequently, in Chapter II, a review of the relevant research literature on professionalism in teaching and teacher satisfaction suggested ambivalent, if not contradictory, findings regarding this relationship. Considering these findings there appears to be a need for an alternative conceptual framework within which to analyse these relationships.

In this chapter a general discussion of the nature of the concepts of professionalism and professional orientation will be followed by an explanatory conceptual model\* within which the nature of the relationship between a professional

\* A model provides an isomorphic representation of reality but it is not claimed that the isomorphism is complete - that is it is not claimed that all the relationships in the real world are represented in the model. The concepts (terms describing a property or relationship in the real world) are linked in the model in a manner it is hoped describes the important linkages in reality. These relationships are then subjected to empirical testing which will offer evidence as to the usefulness or otherwise of the model. (Brodbeck 1959: 374-379).

orientation and job satisfaction will be developed. From this model, hypotheses will be adduced which will provide an indirect test of the general hypothesis noted above.

### A Conceptual Model of Professionalism

As was noted in Chapter I, many scholars approach the study of professionalism adopting what is essentially a "trait" or "process" conceptualization of the nature of professionalism (cf. Willensky 1964; Scott 1969; Greenwood 1966; Millerson 1964). The weakness of this approach has been commented upon (cf. I 5-6). A second major approach is that of the functionalist school, best represented in the work of Talcott Parsons.

The functionalist view, following Parsons, emphasises the contribution of the professional to the larger society. Accordingly, the core criteria is a requirement for formal technical training and an institutionalized means for evaluating the adequacy of the training, plus the competence of trained individuals. Further this training must give prominence to the intellectual component. In addition, according to Parsons, a fully fledged profession must have an institutionalized means of making sure such competence is put to socially responsible uses (Parsons 1968:536).

Functionalist theorists focus on the interaction between professions and the social system generally, seeking to show the place of professions within the larger system. The functionalist approach stresses the acquisition of knowledge and skill by members of the occupation and the use of this

knowledge for the public good. Functionalists point to the importance of the services rendered to the larger society by the professional practitioners (Parsons 1968:536) and to the fact that in return the practitioner is rewarded by society for such service through the status and honour accorded him.

Appealing as such a view of the professions is in some respects, like the trait approach, there are conceptual and logical problems in the functionalist approach. Given the integrative orientation of functionalist theory, it is hard to account for situations of occupational conflict or change. The theory, by focusing on the values that hold society together and on the place that the professions hold within the society to fulfil the achievement of these values, does not illuminate why there should be any malintegration leading to change. Further the macro-level analytical framework of functionalism makes it exceedingly difficult to generate empirically testible hypotheses on the nature of professionalism in other than gross social terms. (Johnson 1972:34).

Assuming the validity of the above criticisms of the functionalist approach, as well as those noted earlier in respect to the trait approach, an alternative conceptual framework seems desirable. Taking into account the basic nature of the above criticisms, such a framework should focus upon the point at which an occupation interacts with the larger society, as well as the manner by which specific

occupations attain professional stature. Such a requirement would appear to be met, in the view of this writer, by developing the framework around the concept of "power" as it relates to occupations and job satisfaction.

Power and occupations.- The balance of power and control in the occupational field is not a new one, though it has recently surfaced with renewed vigour in the writings on professionalism (Perrucci 1971; Freidson 1971; Elliott 1972; Johnson 1972). Durkheim was concerned with the very basic question of how social order is possible in a modern industrial society characterised by cultural individualization, and structural specialization brought on by an advanced division of labor. His concept of organic solidarity supplied the answer in that it emphasised the interdependence of the differentiated groups or parts of the society. The reciprocal relations this specialization required bound the society together into an organic whole within which each group played a vital part. This advanced specialization, a product of the division of labor, while it allowed men to develop their own personality and skills, also created the opportunity for divisive competition. The solution Durkheim proposed to this was the formation of occupational groups, providing men with binding ties. Thus ensuring their alligence to the group, which would in turn interact with other groups to ensure the solidarity of the whole society. In other words, Durkheim saw in the moral and communal order of occupational associations ties that



would draw men together in a cohesive manner, contain and curb conflict, and maintain the social order. (Durkheim 1933: 1-31, 131; Giddens 1972:8-9, 17). Thus, the "power" of occupations to both provide a moral community of interests and to represent those interests vis à vis other interest groups in the larger society was a critical component of Durkheim's theory of the nature of social order in modern society.

This sense of moral community still finds expression today in the claims of professional associations to use their expertise in the service of society and to uphold their codes of ethics as standards to which all occupational members adhere.

Max Weber, in his classical work on bureaucracy, approaches the question of the use of power in modern society from a more nominalistic perspective. Power, as Weber defined it (as noted above) is "the probability that one actor within a social relationship will be in a position to carry out his own will despite resistance, regardless of the basis on which this probability rests". This he distinguished from authority which is "the probability that a command with a given specific content will be obeyed by a given group of persons (Weber 1947:152). Weber was concerned with the emerging dominance of a new principle of social organization in modern society wherein expedient or functional rationality determined the nature of organizational relationships. Such a principle (zweckrational) underlay the rapid growth of the

legal-rational bureaucracy which Weber saw as the hallmark of modern industrial society. Within such a bureaucracy authority is legitimated in terms of rationally established norms, that is the right to exercise authority is given by enactments, degrees and regulations, rationally established, and assigned to specific offices in the hierarchy.\*

While the scope of the work of Durkheim and Weber went far beyond the question of occupational power in modern society, they none the less were sensitive to what essentially represents two dominant views of occupational relationships. Freidson, in a recent work on the nature of professionalism in modern society, has synthesized these earlier views into what he contends are two major principles by which work is organized in modern society (Freidson 1973). Following Weber, Freidson identifies what he refers to as "the administrative principle" of organizing work. This principle rests upon the imperative coordination of the work activities of subordinates by those holding official positions in the hierarchy. The authority to issue directives is assigned to set positions in the hierarchy, the hierarchy of authority being that which is calculated to most efficiently attain organizational goals (Freidson 1973:20). Under this principle of organizing work the content of the job is the creation of the management. The worker is defined by his

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\* Dahrendorf points out that the important difference between power and authority is that power is essentially tied to the personality of individuals (or groups); authority on the other hand is always associated with social positions or roles. Power is merely a factual relation, authority is a legitimate relation of domination or subjection. In this sense authority can be described as legitimate power (Dahrendorf 1959:166).

skill level and by his administratively created job title. The "occupation" a worker follows has no real meaning or content outside the particular organization he happens to work for.

The second major principle by which work is organized in modern society is, according to Freidson, the "occupational principle". Freidson sees the contemporary tendency towards the professionalization of occupations as resting upon this principle. According to this principle authority over work activities is exercised by the occupational members themselves, frequently with the support of the state which approves exclusive licencing and jurisdiction (Freidson 1971:26).

Each principle pre-supposes the legitimacy of the power defining the nature and scope of the occupational activities assumed by individuals in the work setting. For Freidson, then, professionalization is defined as

"...a process by which an organized occupation, usually but not always by virtue of making a claim to special esoteric competence and to concern for the quality of its work and its benefits to society, obtains the exclusive right to perform a particular type of work, control training for and access to it and control the right of determining and evaluating the way the work is performed." (Freidson 1973:22).

When an occupation has become fully professionalized, even if its work characteristically goes on within an organization, management can control the resources connected with work but cannot control most of what the workers do and how they do it (Freidson 1973:23).

Freidson's dicotomy between the two principles of organization work appears both clear and analytically useful. The main problem appears to be with his characterization of work within a professional organization as a work setting where the professionals have complete control over the work although the management controls the resources. Resources can be the key to successful work and therefore in a sense provide a means of control. Thus, in the case of schools both principles can be applied. It is true to say that in the teachers' working day they have autonomy within the classroom since little external control is exercised over activities within the classroom (Katz 1968:423; Bidwell 1965: 976; Lortie 1969:9). Nevertheless the curriculum guidelines to be followed, the recruitment and allocation of pupils, of classtime, of time to subjects, the recruitment to teaching, certification and evaluation of performance, and the goals of the school program are not decided by the teachers as a group but by the Government and the School Board. There can therefore be said to be a degree of imperative coordination. Thus while Freidson's work provides a useful heuristic conceptualization of the underlying premises upon which authority over work activity in modern societies may be explained, it is problematic in its ability to provide insight into a situation, such as that which occurs in schools, where both principles may exist in the same working setting. To meet this need, the recent work of Terence J. Johnson will be considered.

Johnson (1972) provides a typology of occupational control which supplements Freidson and makes clearer the conceptual framework within which the school system can be analysed. Johnson stresses that professional occupations can only be understood in terms of their power relations in society, and presents a typology of occupations based on the type of dominant institutional control over them. He does not actually define the term "profession" but suggests that the typology of occupational control that he develops could apply to all occupations.

Johnson argues that the necessity for control over occupational activities arises directly out of the uncertainty inherent in relationships between practitioner and client. As a result of the division of labor specialized occupations are created. To the extent the practitioner can convince the client of the esoteric nature of his specialized occupational knowledge, social distance is created between specialist and client. This social distance creates an element of uncertainty or indeterminacy in the relationship between the producer and consumer, which leads to a tension that has to be resolved. Various institutions arise to reduce this uncertainty by making the relationship more determinate. The relative power of the producers (practitioners) or consumers (clients) will decide whether the uncertainty is reduced at the expense of the producer or the consumer.

According to Johnson, occupations vary in the degree of uncertainty that exists between the practitioner and the client. Generally, the greater the uncertainty the greater the social distance and the greater the opportunity for occupational autonomy. Such autonomy, of course, is directly related to the control of occupational performance by the practitioner. In Johnson's view, the power of the practitioner directly determines the legitimacy of the occupational claim to professional status.

The "claimed" level of knowledge by the practitioner is the significant variable in Johnson's theory. It is this that is the basis for the uncertainty in the relationship and therefore for the degree of power held by the practitioner. It should be noted that Johnson's argument regarding the place of knowledge in professionalism is not quite the usual argument. The normal argument suggests that professionals are distinguished from other occupations by their possession of a body of theoretical knowledge, which provides a framework for practice, which is not possessed by the general populace. Johnson argues that this is not necessarily so. He argues that professional skills can come to be well understood by the general public. Uncertainty is not entirely cognative in origin, but may be deliberately increased to serve manipulative or managerial ends. "Mystification" may be used to increase social distance and thereby autonomy and control over occupational practice. (Johnson 1972:43). It is for this reason that professionals

frequently struggle against routinization which would lead to a closer understanding of their occupational knowledge.

Building on his argument as to the need to resolve the tension created by the uncertainty in the producer/consumer relationship (an uncertainty created by the producers' claim to specialized knowledge), Johnson postulates three broad resolutions of the conflict. Collegiate control, where the producer defines the needs of the consumer and the manner in which these needs are met; patronage control where the consumer defines his own needs and the manner in which they are met; and mediative control where a third party mediates the relationship between producer and consumer defining both the needs and the manner in which they are met. (Johnson 1972:45-46).

Examples of occupations where the tension has been resolved in terms of collegiate control would include doctors and lawyers. Accountants and engineers are occupations whose membership is found mostly in large corporate organizations. Such organizations define the nature and scope of the work to be done and, therefore, are patrons of the occupation. Teachers most appropriately fall into the third type of occupational control (mediative) in that it is the state and/or community which intervenes in the relationship between the teacher/practitioner and the client.

Within the context of the discussion of teachers as professionals it might be presumed that the occupation of teaching could be categorized as coming under collegiate control. Under this form of control, as delineated by

Johnson, consumers are generally a large heterogeneous group and they have a fiduciary, one to one relationship, to the practitioner. The relationship is generally initiated by the client and terminated by the practitioner. The power of the consumer group is therefore unorganized and very low. By contrast to the consumers, the practitioners tend to be a homogeneous group from a similar social background, their correct behavior is ensured by a long training and socialization. The lengthy training creates occupational norms and a professional subculture and this is further reinforced by a code of ethics to which all adhere, This code is usually written by an association of practitioners which is also the registering body for membership in the occupation. The emphasis here is on control exercised by colleagues over colleagues.

Consideration of the position of teachers as an occupational group employed almost entirely within the school system suggests that, while this type of control can be taken as an ideal towards which teachers are moving, mediative control is the more appropriate framework for considering their present position as was stated above.

As Johnson notes, under mediative occupational control "the state intervenes in the relationship between practitioner and client in order to define needs and/or the manner in which such needs are catered for" (Johnson 1972:77) The reason for State intervention, or the intervention of any outside body, is generally to guarantee services to the



public. A distinguishing feature of this type of occupational control is that the clientele is guaranteed. This has a number of consequences for the profession. The consumers are defined by citizenship rather than social origin or ability to pay and are therefore a highly heterogeneous group. Because of the guaranteed clientele, the system of referring clients to colleagues for services is nearly non-existent reducing contact between colleagues.

Under this type of control the consumer/producer relationship is "managed" to reduce the possibilities of exploitation on both sides. The state is committed to a flow of services for the public good. Employment is with public agencies organized to provide the service. The function of maintaining standards is therefore generally taken over by public agencies. The stress for all practitioners is on social service to the clientele rather than the personal service orientation found in some professions such as medicine or law. Given this emphasis upon social service, practitioner loyalties are likely to be focused towards the agency rather than towards a community of colleagues.\*

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\* The third type of control that Johnson outlines is patronage control. Under this type of control consumer choice is paramount. The form that patronage generally takes in our society is corporate patronage where the practitioner finds employment with a bureaucracy where the clientele is small, unified and powerful, and they are in a position to define their needs and the manner in which they will be met. Patronage systems therefore are characterised by practicing contexts in which practitioners must know and do what is expected of them, consumer uncertainty is thereby reduced to a minimum. Under this set-up occupational norms are less well defined than corporate norms and this is tied to an ethic of limited responsibility for the producer.

One of the major processes underlying this mediative type of control is bureaucratization arising directly out of the attempt to guarantee services to consumers. This has profound effects on colleague relations since working in a bureaucracy tends to stratify practitioners along administrative and speciality lines, break down colleague relations, and alter the structure of careers by opening up managerial and advisory positions. Given the nature of bureaucratic organization and its organizational purpose of social service the central delima of such organizations according to Johnson is "...a conflict between the demands of service and administrative needs. The attempt to guarantee services gives rise to an administrative framework the efficient operation of which creates demands which are in conflict with the provision of those services for which they were created." (Johnson 1972:85)

Applied to the educational system and the manner in which the occupation of teaching relates to it, the paradigm of mediative control "fits" most appropriately of the three types of control disuussed by Johnson. The fact that all children between the ages of 6 and 15 years have to go to school ensures that it is a very heterogeneous clientele, and also, in the nature of teaching and dealing with such large numbers, that service cannot be given on an individual one to one basis. The stress is on public service rather than personal service. For this reason

the state control exercised is fairly detailed in order to ensure that the child's progress through the system is sequential and that at the provincial level the education system is roughly parallel to provincial systems in the rest of the country, with children expected to achieve at least a basic minimum level of education, (Bidwell 1965:974). Acting in the public interest therefore the state mediates between the teacher and the students (and/or parents) to ensure a continuous flow of services and provides for the creation of agencies (school boards) to see that this is done. In short, uncertainty in the practitioner/client relationship is drastically reduced. What becomes problematic is the balance of power and control between the practitioner and the mediating body, that is between the teachers and the school system.

Drawing on both Johnson and Freidson, it can be argued that the process of increasing professionalization for teachers is an attempt to move from a mediative form of control, where the control is exercised by another group over teachers, to a collegiate form of control --where control rests with the colleague group to both determine the needs of the client group and define the manner in which they shall be met. In Freidson's terms, the teachers as an occupational group desire to move out from under control which can be termed "administrative" to control based upon the "occupational principle".

As suggested by the work of Simpson (1969), Corwin (1970) and others, there is considerable variation in the desire for such control. As the previous studies suggest, one important reason for less than total consensus among teachers appears to be the large number of females in the occupation. It is not women as such that create the problem, of course, but the nature of the cultural norms surrounding women's role in society. Prather (1971) in a discussion of the socio-psychological factors that hinder women's advancement in the professions noted two conceptions of women that prevail-- women as sex objects and as servants. Both conceptions emphasize behavior that is consistent with attitudes of dependency, being other-oriented, passivity, and non-assertiveness which are learned and reinforced through socialization practices (1971:175). Prather also notes the prevailing social norms that advocate a career for men and motherhood for women (1971:180). These prevailing societal attitudes are not conducive to the development of a strong commitment to a professional career for women, nor to the evaluation of an occupation dominated by women as "professional".\*

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\* One factor which may strengthen the commitment to professional careers for women is the current changing status of women in society. No studies appear to have been done on the impact of this though the issue is discussed in current professional publications.

While cultural constraints, manifest in the cultural norms surrounding female behavior, operate to restrict the thrust toward professionalism among teachers, the organizational nature of the school itself can be viewed as constraining such a development as well. Leggatt has suggested that teaching will never gain full professional stature because of this very situation (1970:160). To paraphrase Perrow, the bureaucratic mode of operation amounts to a system of control over work activities which emphasizes coordination, and the allocating of decision-making on specific matters to specific positions (Perrow 1972:59).

Within the school structure, however, as Simpson has noted, a measure of leeway does exist for the exercise of "professional" autonomy. There is, as Bidwell has suggested, a "structural looseness" to the school system. The whole is coordinated and controlled by the bureaucratic reliance on rules and procedures that put "limits" on the exercise of discretionary judgments, but the teacher works in the classroom relatively hidden from colleagues and superiors so she has discretionary judgment within the bounds of the classroom (Bidwell 1965:976). Similarly, at the organizational level, the school units of the school system are relatively autonomous so that the teaching and administrative personnel of the school also have broad discretionary powers. The school is a

relatively self-contained organizational unit (Bidwell 1965:976). Such "looseness", combined with the somewhat dependent status associated with the conventional female role, encourages, it is suggested, the ambivalence towards authority noted in the review of the literature.\*

Summarizing to this point we have sought to conceptualize the process of professionalization as a process of gaining power to control occupational activities. The model which Johnson presents, which it has been argued appears to provide a good framework within which to view the occupation of teaching, is one in which the relationship between the practitioner group (the teachers) and the clients (the students and/or their parents) is mediated (controlled) by the state (the government and school boards). Given this situation the mediating body determines both the clients' needs and the manner in which they shall be met, using a bureaucratic mode of organization, emphasising hierarchial authority which required teachers compliance with administrative rules and regulations. The government and school boards control work in a manner, using Freidson's terms, consistent with the administrative principle. The movement towards professional status by the teachers can be conceptualized as a movement towards controlling work in

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\* For other discussions of the organizational nature of the school system and its consequences for the teachers role see Katz (1964) and Lortie (1969:1-15)

accordance with what Freidson terms the occupational principle.

Given the above conceptualization of the institutional process of professionalization within the educational system as a process wherein teachers as an occupational group seek to increase their power in the work setting of the school, its consequences for teachers, individually and collectively, will now be considered. What can be viewed institutionally as a thrust by an occupation to gain power i.e. the professionalization process, can be seen at the individual level to be expressed in a "professional orientation" towards one's occupational role.

Merton has explained how a social orientation differs from, but underlies, a social role. "Role refers to the manner in which the rights and duties inherent in a social position are put into practice: orientation... refers to the theme underlying the complex of social roles performed by an individual. It is the (tacit or explicit) theme which finds expression in each of the complex of social roles in which the individual is implicated" (Merton 1967:446). To hold a "professional orientation" therefore would mean that the underlying theme of role behavior for teachers would be one in which a strong desire would exist to increase their influence over decisions related to their occupational roles.

The basis on which this professional orientation is developed is the adoption of those characteristics that are part of the general public image of "a profession". The adoption may not be very explicit or clearly defined. It is more in the nature of taking over some of the ethos and attitudes assumed to be held by the well-established professions. This group sense of being "professionals" is reinforced by training, socialization, and claiming the right to autonomy, and also by altering the structure of the occupation to include the outward trappings of "a profession"; i.e. formation of a professional association, the adoption of a code of ethics, the constant reiteration of a "professional" stand on work related issues. As this professional stance becomes the underlying theme for a larger proportion of the occupational group it provides the basis for a growing insistence on the need for control of decision making as it affects the occupation.

Professionally oriented teachers undoubtedly share many concerns similar to those teachers less professionally oriented (and the frustrations resulting therefrom). Ideally, however, both their interpretation of the reasons for concern and the particular areas of concern should differ significantly. We would anticipate that the more professionally oriented teachers would tend to "explain"



the cause of problems in terms of their own lack of authority or influence in the relevant decision-making process. So also, unlike the non-professional teachers, the professionally oriented teachers will be more apt to interpret decisions taken by administrators as a threat to their professional "autonomy".

Our previous review of the relevant literature has established the tenuous nature of professionalism within the existing educational system. Indeed, the conceptual model garnered from our review of the literature suggests that the present day school system may be most accurately described as an elementary bureaucracy, with clearly defined areas of authority, within which there is "space" for discretionary judgments appropriate to the expertise of the person occupying that position. In such a system the opportunity for teachers to directly participate in decision making is limited, but the opportunity for influence in the decision making process exists and it is the deliberate desire to systematically influence the decision makers in the school setting which, we would argue, distinguishes the more professionally oriented teachers from their less professionally oriented colleagues.

For the professional teacher, in lieu of direct access to the decision making process, the opportunity to exert influence is most crucial. Parson's explanation of the nature of political influence in formal organizations is relevant to the point of our discussion

"Political influence we could conceive as influence in the context of goal functioning collectivities, as generalized persuasion without power, i.e. independent of the use of power or direct threat - used on the one hand by units either exercising or bidding for leadership positions and, on the other, by non-leaders seeking to have an effect on the decisions and orientations of leaders. (Parsons 1963:53-54).

In other words, for the teacher who is professionally oriented, and not involved in decision-making, the desire to have an effect upon administrative decisions should be a predominant aspect of her role behavior within the school.

Such influence, of course, would be informal. There are few, if any, structural channels within the school system that automatically draw forth opinions from teachers. Accordingly, to use influence requires initiative on the part of teachers to express their opinion on a particular issue or to make it clearly understood that they wish to be consulted in respect to certain categories of decisions. This initiative is problematic. The individuals involved may or may not feel self-assertive enough to express opinions and views in a deliberate attempt to exert influence on those higher in the authority structure of the school system. However, to the degree that a teacher

holds a professional orientation, she should "want" to have a say in the decision making. Conversely their less professionally oriented colleagues will have less desire for influence, their orientation will be more to being "employees" and accepting direction from the administrators. Each of these orientations is, at the individual level, a reflection of Freidson's principles of control over work, i.e. professionally oriented teachers seek occupational control while non-professional teachers accept administrative control. (Freidson 1973; 20-26).

Turning to the nature of the significance of this orientation for teacher satisfaction, as noted in the review of studies on teacher satisfaction, the evidence on the significance of an orientation towards professionalism upon satisfaction is unclear. While the general desire of teachers to be more influential in decision making was evident from several studies (Corwin 1970; Massé 1969; Alutto and Belesco 1972), the extent to which the desire was related to a professional orientation is uncertain. The work of Corwin (1970) suggests it is not related, while the studies by Bridges (1964) and Carpenter (1971) suggest that a professional orientation is related to a desire for influence and therefore to teachers satisfaction with the decision-making structure of the school. This anomaly may be explained in part by the differing methodologies and conceptualizations used by the various researchers. However, it is also reasonable to suggest

that the crucial variable in these studies was a failure to specify clearly the nature of a professional orientation and, given that specification, how such an orientation would logically affect teacher satisfaction.

As previously noted, within the context of our explanatory conceptual model, a professional orientation is basically a "power orientation" towards controlling those aspects of the role in the work setting important to the practitioner/client relationship. Given such an orientation, it would be logical to assume that factors within the work setting of the school system which relate most closely to this concern, would be more likely to generate dissatisfaction among professionally oriented teachers than among their less professionally oriented colleagues. Logically, other factors, such as personality characteristics, the social characteristics of various teachers, and their experience in the educational system would have some influence upon their relative satisfaction as well. However controlling for such confounding factors should not eliminate the basic nature of the relationship between a professional orientation and satisfaction with factors directly related to professional concerns.

Within the framework of the expected relationship between a professional orientation and teacher satisfaction noted above, an important element to be considered is the nature of the way in which the professionally oriented

teacher relates to the mediating role of the school bureaucracy previously discussed. If a distinction is made between the bureaucratic form or structure of the school generally and the principle of organizational authority underlying that structure, we would anticipate that professionally oriented teachers would tend to be no more dissatisfied with the bureaucratic form than their less professionally oriented colleagues. Thus Moeller and Charters (1966) found that teachers in schools with a highly bureaucratic structure had a greater sense of power than teachers in less bureaucratically structured schools, and Meyers (1972) found no relationship between bureaucratic structure and teachers' sense of power. On the other hand, assuming that the desire for control in the work setting is the primary ingredient of a professional orientation, the lack of perceived opportunity to influence, if not control, decision making in the school system, regardless of its bureaucratic form, would lead to dissatisfaction among the professionally oriented teachers. This interpretation is consistent with Corwin's (1970) finding of a positive relationship between job satisfaction and conflict (since conflict is, in a backhanded kind of way, an attempt at influence), and between conflict and a professional orientation, even though he reported no relationship between a professional orientation and general job satisfaction. It also explains why Masse' should find no relationship between

a professionalism scale and preferred participation (which can be interpreted as an indirect measure of satisfaction) and a strongly positive association between his professional authority scale and preferred participation in the decision making process. In other words, job satisfaction among professionally oriented teachers may be more directly linked to what they see to be the legitimate use of power by administrators than it is to the bureaucratic hierarchy or structure as such. Indeed, if Corwin is correct (1970:297), the reciprocal nature of professionalism and bureaucracy may actually tend to promote the structural growth of both developments within the modern educational system.

If the above interpretation of the relationship between a professional orientation and teachers' job satisfaction is essentially correct then it requires a re-statement of the original general hypothesis presented in Chapter I. Restated it is as follows -

Desiring more control over their occupational activities in the school system, the more professionally oriented teachers will be less satisfied with their influence on the decision making structure of the school system than their less professionally oriented colleagues.

It should now be possible to adduce several specific hypotheses regarding the nature of this relationship. These hypotheses in turn will provide a basis upon which the general hypothesis can be either accepted or rejected.

The opportunity for teachers to relate closely to their students is a source of satisfaction, as shown by Simpson (1969:VI-40) and Lortie (1969:32). However, in the terms of the model put forward by Johnson (1972) this relationship is mediated by the decisions made by the administrators in the school system. To professionally oriented teachers desiring power to control their occupational activities it follows that a major concern will be the extent to which they are able to make decisions independently as to what the needs of the pupils are and how best they should be met in the classroom. Therefore the first specific hypothesis is.-

A professional orientation is inversely related to satisfaction with class room autonomy.

One facet of control over occupational activities which, drawing on the model, one would expect to be of concern to professionally oriented teachers, but of less concern to less professionally minded teachers, is the actual assignment of personnel to occupational roles. In Johnson's typology, under mediative control the state employs those it feels can meet the needs of clients and defines the manner of meeting those needs. Under colleague control the practitioner and client are brought together on the basis of the degree to which the clients' needs can be met by the practitioners' expertise. One would expect that for professionally oriented teachers,

included in the desire to control their occupational roles, would be a desire to have input into the decision making relating to employment practices, therefore the second specific hypothesis is -

A professional orientation is inversely related to satisfaction with influence on administrators regarding colleague assignments.

Decisions relating to the educational system as a whole are made by the Department of Education and the school boards. These decisions, put into practice, have a profound effect on the occupational activities of teachers, providing the whole framework within which they must practice. Again drawing on the model this is in accordance with Freidson's administrative principle (1973:20) and Johnson's conception of mediative control where decisions as to the needs of clients and the manner of meeting them are decided by the mediating body (1972:46). A change or movement towards control in the manner Johnson outlined under "colleague control" (1972:45) or in accordance with Freidson's occupational principle (1973:22) would require teachers to have input, and eventual control, over decisions affecting the school system as a whole. It can be hypothesised therefore that movement towards this end will be a concern of professionally oriented teachers, therefore it is hypothesised that

A professional orientation is inversely related to satisfaction with administrative decisions regarding organizational change.



In discussing the effect of a professional orientation on satisfaction the attempt is being made to separate out the precise effect on satisfaction. The two types of satisfaction analytically separated in outlining the problem in Chapter I differentiated between satisfaction with the organizational factors and satisfaction with the work setting, that is with the everyday opportunities and social relationships provided by the work setting.

As stressed in the model, the main concern of professionally oriented teachers will be with the gaining of control by influence on decision making, and since satisfaction with the work setting will be more influenced by the particular circumstances within the school than by the professional orientation of the teachers it is hypothesised that -

A professional orientation is not significantly related to satisfaction with the work setting.

In this chapter the model to be used in examining the relationship between an orientation towards professionalism and work satisfaction has been presented. The general hypothesis has been reformulated as a result of the discussion and four specific hypotheses adduced from this. The results of testing these specific hypotheses will offer evidence for or against acceptance of the general hypothesis.

In the following chapter the measurement of the variables will be described, the hypotheses operationalized and the methods to be used in testing them discussed.

## CHAPTER IV

### METHODOLOGY

#### Introduction

In this chapter the data to be used will be discussed. Following this the operational definition of the variables and the construction of index scores to measure them will be described. The specific hypotheses will then be set out in their operational form. The method of testing these hypotheses will be described and the advantages, applicability and limitations of these methods evaluated.

#### Data

Source.- The data for this study was taken from a questionnaire administered in a survey conducted by Dr. B.J. Hodgkins in the St. Boniface School Division. The purpose of the survey was to undertake a general organizational analysis of the nature of teachers' attitudes and values. Of the 16 schools involved in the study, 10 are elementary schools (two of which include grades 7 and 8), 2 are junior high schools, and 4 are high schools. Questionnaires were given to all teachers in the division, a total of 416 teachers teaching kindergarten to grade 12. 340 usable questionnaires were returned. The response rate, with one exception, was high from all schools, varying from 60 per cent to 100 per cent, 10 schools were over 80 per cent. The sole exception was one high

school with only a 17 per cent response rate (7 teachers out of 42 returning questionnaires).\*

Limitations.-- The main limitation in connection with the data was the method of distribution and collection of the questionnaires. The questionnaires were distributed through the principals in the schools and the teachers were asked to return them to the superintendent's office. Although the teachers were assured of anonymity this may have affected the responses given by some teachers. How much this may have biased the results cannot be established but the effect, if anything, is likely to have made teachers a little more "conservative" or non-committal in their responses. Considering the measures used in this analysis this would attenuate the correlation so the actual relationships may be stronger than the results show.

The request to return the questionnaires to the superintendent's office may also account for the low response rate from one high school that was noted above.

#### The operational definition of variables

The questionnaire contained a series of questions relating to different aspects of professionalism, a number of questions on satisfaction with the teaching role, and a number of questions on perceived influence and the level of influence desired.†

Factor analytic methods were

\* The response rate by school is given in the Appendix.

† A copy of the questions used in this study appears in the Appendix.

used to uncover different dimensions of these concepts and subsequently to construct index scores to measure the variables.

Factor analysis, by reducing a large number of variables (or question responses) to a small number of factors, enables the researcher to clarify the measurement of his concepts. Any single question on a questionnaire may or may not precisely tap the concept or idea the researcher wishes to investigate. This is not to say that the questions are poorly designed but that there may be discrepancies between the idea intended, the wording of the question, and the interpretation given it by the respondent. If a large number of questions relating to a single concept are asked, and the responses correlated, in combination they cover the concept under investigation. Variables (or question responses) highly correlated cluster together on one factor and it is generally possible to identify the underlying element common to them and thereby to name that factor.

Factor analysis was performed on all subsections of the two questions relating to teachers' professional orientations (questions 10 and 11); on all parts of the question relating to teachers' satisfaction with their role (question 18); and on the subsections of the question relating to perceived and desired influence (question 22).

Professional orientation: operational definition

As a first step a factor analysis was performed on the two questions relating to teachers' professional orientations (questions 10 and 11). The questions were designed to tap different dimensions of teachers' orientations towards their occupational roles and thereby to provide a measure of their professional or employee orientations. The complete results of the factor analysis using a varimax rotation are given in the Appendix. After considering the questions within each factor with factor loadings over .450 the three factors were labelled as follows-

- Factor I - Professional Standards
- Factor II - Client Orientation
- Factor III - Professional Activities

The questions included in each factor are shown in Table 4.1.

From the results of the factor analysis, index scores of each teachers' professional orientation on each of these three factors or dimensions of professionalism were compiled. This was done by totalling their scores on each of the variables included in each factor with a factor loading of more than .450. Each teacher was given a score on each factor plus a total score for all three factors together. Non-respondents were scored as 3 so as not to eliminate them from the sample (Herriott and Hodgkins, 1969:281). The responses to each question were coded from 1-strongly agree to 5-strongly disagree. A low index score thus indicates high professionalism as as defined here.

Table 4.1Factor Loadings on Questions relating to  
Professional OrientationFactor I Professional StandardsFactor Loading

Teachers should try to live up to what they think are the standards of their profession even if the administration or the community does not seem to respect them.

.499

A teacher should try to put his standards and ideals of good teaching into practice even if the rules or procedures of the school prohibit it.

.833

A teachers should consistently practice his/her ideas of the best educational practice even though the administration prefers other views.

.463

Factor II Client Orientation

It should be permissible for the teacher to violate a rule if he/she is sure that the best interests of the students will be served in doing so.

.568

Unless she is satisfied that it is best for the student a teacher should not do what she is told to do.

.591

A good teacher should not do anything that he believes may jeopardize the interests of his students regardless of who tells him to or what the rules state.

.571

Factor III Professional activities

Teachers should subscribe to and diligently read the standard professional journals

.727

Teachers should be active members of at least one professional teaching association, and attend most conferences and meetings of the association.

.573

A professional orientation was therefore measured by a total score and by three separate scores -- on professional standards, client orientation, and professional activities. These three scores appear to be valid measures of a professional orientation in the light of the preceeding discussion of the basis of a professional orientation (cf. p.III-19). Teachers who are professionally oriented will be more inclined to make judgments in the light of what they feel are professional standards than to follow the directives of the school administration. Similarly professionally oriented teachers will be more inclined to use their expert knowledge to determine the pupils needs, and act accordingly, than to abide by impersonal rules and regulations to dealing with pupils. Attendance at professional meetings and journal reading provides direct measures of professional activity.

#### Satisfaction with the work setting - operational definition

On the question relating to satisfaction, teachers were asked to express their satisfaction with thirteen different aspects of their role. Factor analysis, using a varimax rotation, produced two separate factors. The complete factor matrix is shown in the Appendix.

Factor 2 relates to social relationships with colleagues and pupils in the work setting. The questions included in this factor are shown in Table 4.2. An index

was compiled, as for the measure of professional orientation, for each teacher on this factor. Responses to the questions, which were totalled for the score, were coded from 1-very satisfied to 5-very dissatisfied. A low score therefore indicates high satisfaction with social relationships in the work setting.\*

Table 4.2

Factor Loadings on Questions relating to  
Satisfaction with the Work Setting

<u>Satisfaction with the Work setting</u>	<u>Factor Loading</u>
The level of competence of most of the other teachers in this school	.493
The method employed in this school for making decisions on pupil discipline matters.	.536
The attitude of the students towards the faculty of this school.	.714
The educational philosophy which seems to prevail in this school.	.476

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\* The questions included in Factor 1 in combination did not appear to tap precisely the satisfaction with the opportunity to influence the decision making structure of the school system which it was desired to measure. This factor was therefore not used in the analysis.



Satisfaction with decision making - operational definition

It was argued, based on the model drawn from Johnson (1972) and from Freidson (1973), that a professional orientation involves a desire for control over occupational activities. It follows from this that for the professionally oriented teachers the lack of opportunity to exercise influence in decision making will create a sense of dissatisfaction in these teachers. For the purposes of this analysis the degree of satisfaction with decision making is operationally defined in terms of the discrepancy between the influence teachers feel they should have and that which they perceive themselves to actually have.

The question relating to influence was factor analysed in two separate parts. The first part relates to the influence teachers perceive themselves as actually having, the second part to the influence they feel they should have. Factor analysis, using a varimax rotation, produced three factors, the same for both parts of the question. These factors were identified as -

- Factor 1 - influence on system wide change
- Factor 2 - influence on the hiring, firing  
and assignment of teachers
- Factor 3 - influence on instructional matters  
in the classroom.

Table 4.3 shows the questions included in each factor with the factor loadings. The complete factor matrix for both parts of the question is given in the Appendix.

Table 4.3Factor Loadings on questions relating to  
Perceived and Desired Influence

	<u>Factor Loading</u> <u>Perceived</u> <u>Influence</u>	<u>Factor Loading</u> <u>Desired</u> <u>Influence</u>
<u>Factor 1 Influence on System</u> <u>Wide Change</u>		
Setting the time schedule and goals to be achieved for a system wide change	.815	.828
Identifying the types of system-wide changes to be implimented	.917	.944
Working out the details for implimenting system-wide changes	.807	.785
<u>Factor 2 Influence on the</u> <u>Hiring, Firing and</u> <u>Assignment of</u> <u>Teachers</u>		
Hiring new teachers	.783	.870
Deciding whether to renew a teacher's contract	.813	.751
Making specific faculty assignments	.653	.559
<u>Factor 3 Influence on</u> <u>Instructional</u> <u>Matters in the</u> <u>Classroom</u>		
Selecting texts and other materials	.623	.661
Establishing the objectives for each course.	.881	.794
Determining the concepts and information to be taught in a particular course.	.784	.771

Three scores were compiled for each teacher for perceived influence by totalling her responses to the questions in each factor which had a factor loading of over .500 (See Table 4.3). Three scores were compiled in the same manner for desired influence (see also Table 4.3). As a measure of satisfaction with the decision making structure of the school system the difference between these two sets of scores was calculated to give a discrepancy score on each of the three factors. Each teacher was thus given a score indicating their degree of satisfaction with (1) their opportunity to influence system wide changes, (2) their opportunity to influence the hiring, firing and assignment of teachers, and (3) their autonomy over instructional matters in the classroom.

The questions were scored from 1-no influence to 5-a great deal of influence. Since the measure for satisfaction is the difference between the two scores, a large difference giving a high score indicates low satisfaction. Conversely a low score indicates high satisfaction.

### Limitations

A slightly conservative bias was introduced into all of these index scores by recoding all non-respondents as 3 (scores ranged from 1 to 5 in all questions). To have

eliminated respondents where one score was lacking would have reduced the sample considerably so this alternative was adopted.\* This could possibly have introduced a slight measurement error. The effect of coding non-respondents as 3 has been to narrow the discrepancy between their desired level of influence and the level they perceive themselves as having. In the questions relating to professional orientation--particularly those relating to a client orientation where the non-response reached a level where it could affect the results--the effect was to introduce a conservative bias. Given this the result of coding non-respondents as 3 have been to attenuate the correlations, the relationships that exist therefore may be stronger than the results show.†

#### The use of index scores - general discussion

For the purpose of this study professional orientation, satisfaction with the decision making structure, and satisfaction with the work setting are operationally defined in terms of these indices. Index numbers, calculated in the manner already described are being used as

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\* The actual figures for non-response are given in the Appendix.

† An alternative solution to dealing with non-response would have been to project the score for the unanswered question from those that were answered. Where respondents failed to answer all the questions involved in the index they should have been deleted from the calculations.

a means of indicating an underlying variable that is not directly measurable. Strictly speaking there is no logical way to bridge the gap between the concept and the index score that purports to measure it. (Blalock 1972:13). However, calculated in the manner described, the indices can be assumed to give a reasonably accurate estimate of the variables. The scores, calculated for each teacher in the sample, are a tool which makes it possible to use statistical procedures but at the same time it is recognized that they are only a means of measuring the underlying concepts being discussed. It is assumed in using index scores that the error that enters in is random.

#### Operational form of the specific hypotheses

The specific hypotheses adduced from the general hypothesis and the model can now be stated in a form that can be tested. The first specific hypothesis was:

A professional orientation is inversely related to satisfaction with classroom autonomy.

Restated in operational form this becomes:

Hypothesis 1: A professional orientation is inversely related to satisfaction with autonomy over instructional matters in the classroom.

In discussing the specific hypothesis it was argued that a major concern for professionally oriented teachers would be the extent to which they would be able to make decisions independently as to what the needs of the pupil

are and how best they should be met in the classroom (cf. III-26). Since the prime task of teachers involves instructional matters the materials used for this, and the decisions as to the course content and objectives, should be of prime concern to professionally oriented teachers. It was felt that the degree of satisfaction with autonomy over instructional matters in the classroom was a good measure of classroom autonomy.

In the last chapter it was suggested that the mixed findings of the studies reviewed regarding the relationship between a professional orientation and satisfaction might be due in part to a failure to specify the exact nature of a professional orientation. In testing this hypothesis the three different dimensions uncovered by factor analysis will be examined separately in an attempt to clarify the relationship. The following hypotheses will therefore be tested:

Hypothesis 1a: Professional standards are inversely related to satisfaction with autonomy over instructional matters in the classroom.

Hypothesis 1b: A client orientation is inversely related to satisfaction with autonomy over instructional matters in the classroom.

Hypothesis 1c: Professional activities are inversely related to satisfaction with autonomy over instructional matters in the classroom.

The second specific hypothesis was:

A professional orientation is inversely related to satisfaction with influence on administrators regarding colleague assignments.

In the operational form this becomes:

Hypothesis 2: A professional orientation is inversely related to satisfaction with influence on the hiring, firing and assignment of teachers.

The different dimensions of a professional orientation will also be examined with reference to this hypothesis:

Hypothesis 2a: Professional standards are inversely related to satisfaction with influence on the hiring, firing and assignment of teachers.

Hypothesis 2b: A client orientation is inversely related to satisfaction with influence on the hiring, firing and assignment of teachers.

Hypothesis 2c: Professional activities are inversely related to satisfaction with influence on the hiring, firing and assignment of teachers.

The third specific hypothesis was stated as follows:

A professional orientation is inversely related to satisfaction with influence on administrative decisions regarding organizational change.

Restated in operational form this becomes:

Hypothesis 3: A professional orientation is inversely related to satisfaction with influence on system wide change.

Hypothesis 3a: Professional standards are inversely related to satisfaction with influence on system wide change.

Hypothesis 3b: A client orientation is inversely related to satisfaction with influence on system wide change.

Hypothesis 3c: Professional activities are inversely related to satisfaction with system wide change.

The fourth specific hypothesis was concerned with the satisfaction of teachers with their work setting and it was argued that this would not be affected by teachers' orientations to professionalism.

A professional orientation is not significantly related to satisfaction with the work setting.

The operational form of this hypothesis is:

Hypothesis 4: Professional orientation is not significantly related to satisfaction with the work setting.

#### Statistical analysis

As an initial step in testing the operational hypotheses Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient was used. Besides being easily interpreted, it has the advantage of allowing a summary of the strength of the relationship between two variables so that several relationships can be compared to determine which is the strongest.

This correlation coefficient measures the amount of the spread about the linear least squares equation. The correlation coefficient,  $r$ , has an upper limit of 1. If all the points lie on a straight line  $r$  will be either +1 or - 1 depending on whether the relationship is positive or negative. A coefficient of 0 indicates that no linear relationship exists (Blalock 1972: 376-377).

The coefficient  $r$  describes the strength of the association between an independent and a dependent variable. If the coefficient is squared,  $r^2$ , it has an interpretation



in terms of the explained variance, that is it gives the proportion of the total variance in one variable that can be explained by the other variable.

As a refinement of the zero-order relationship expressed by Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient, partial (1st and 3rd order) correlation was used to remove the effects of other variables which may affect the relationship. Commonly the correlation between two variables will be affected by other variables entering into the relationship uninvited. These intrusive factors can affect the correlation by drastically reducing it, or less commonly, by increasing it (Mueller and Schuessler 1961:328). In the partial correlation the effects of those intrusive factors that can be identified are controlled. Thus a partial correlation provides a single measure of association describing the relationship between two variables while adjusting for the effects of one or more additional variables (Nie, Bent and Hull 1970: 158). The effects of these controlled variables is assumed to be linear.

In the review of the literature, and in the theoretical discussion, the position of women in society was considered as having an influence on their professional orientations (Simpson 1969; Weil and Weil 1971; Prather 1971). For this reason it was considered desirable to control for sex. Experience was also controlled for, as the

influence of experience on the perception of conflict, and on the desire for influence was noted by Alutto and Belesco (1972) and Muth (n.d.) It was also decided to control for education on the assumption that a higher level of education would have a professionalizing effect.

In considering both the zero-order correlations and the partial correlations a significance level of .05 will be accepted, and .01 will be considered highly significant. Significance tests measure the probability that a relationship can occur by chance. The .05 level, for example, indicates that the relationship will occur by chance only five times out of every 100. The hypothesis to be tested in this study will be accepted if the relationship is shown to be significant at the .05 level or better.

#### Limitations

The main limitation in using Pearson's  $r$  and partial correlation is the assumption of linearity. An  $r$  of zero or a low correlation may mask the fact that the relationship is a curvilinear one rather than linear. There appears to be no reason to assume that the relationships between the variables would not be linear in this case, therefore Pearson's  $r$  and partial correlations were considered appropriate statistical techniques.

In this chapter the data and the methods by which the specific hypotheses are to be tested have been described. The results of the analysis are reported in the next chapter.

## CHAPTER V

### RESULTS

#### Introduction

In Chapter IV the major variables to be used in this study were operationally defined and used to state the specific hypotheses in operational form. As the general hypothesis cannot be tested directly, specific hypotheses were formulated. Their acceptance or rejection will provide the basis for accepting or rejecting the general hypothesis. This chapter deals with the statistical results of the testing of the specific hypotheses and evaluates these results in terms of their supporting or not supporting the general hypothesis.

#### The Sample

As part of the preliminary examination of the data to establish the characteristics of the sample cross tabulations were used.\* Of the sample of 340 teachers, 219 are female, 102 male (non-response 19). The range of education is not great, 41 per cent of the teachers in the sample have below a B.A. degree, and a further 50 per cent have a B.A., only 6 per cent report a higher level of education. With regard to experience 43 per cent have had no experience outside St. Boniface and another 21 per cent have had only one or two years experience in other divisions. For the most part their

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\* Figures for sex, education and experience drawn from the cross-tabulations are given in the Appendix.

teaching experience within the St. Boniface School Division is also short. Thirty-two per cent have had one years experience or less teaching in the division, two-thirds have had 5 years experience or less.

### Results

The first hypothesis was:

Hypothesis 1: A professional orientation is inversely related to satisfaction with autonomy over instructional matters in the classroom.

Hypothesis 1a: Professional standards are inversely related to satisfaction with autonomy over instructional matters in the classroom.

Hypothesis 1b: A client orientation is inversely related to satisfaction with autonomy over instructional matters in the classroom.

Hypothesis 1c: Professional activities are inversely related to satisfaction with autonomy over instructional matters in the classroom.

The zero-order correlation coefficients (Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficients) are given in Table 5.1. The results of controlling for the effects of teachers' level of education, for sex and for experience is reported in Table 5.2. The third order partials, controlling for the combined effects of these three variables, are reported in Table 5.3.

Table 5.1

Zero order correlations between professional orientation and satisfaction with autonomy over instructional matters in the classroom.

	<u>Satisfaction</u>
1. Professional orientation	-.15**
1a. Professional standards	-.19**
1b. Client orientation	-.09*
1c. Professional activities	-.01

N = 340

\*\* Significant at .01 level or better  
 \* Significant at .05 level or better

Table 5.2

1st order partials between professional orientation and satisfaction with autonomy over instructional matters in the classroom - controlling for teachers' education, sex and experience.

	<u>Variable controlled</u>		
	<u>Education</u>	<u>Sex</u>	<u>Experience</u>
Satisfaction with:			
1. Professional orientation	-.15**	-.15**	-.15**
1a. Professional standards	-.19**	-.19**	-.19**
1b. Client orientation	-.09	-.09	-.09
1c. Professional activities	-.01	-.01	-.01

N = 317

\*\* Significant at .01 level or better

Table 5.3

3rd order partials between professional orientation and satisfaction with autonomy over instructional matters in the classroom - controlling for teachers' education, sex and experience

---

	<u>Satisfaction</u>
1. Professional orientation	-.15**
1a. Professional standards	-.19**
1b. Client orientation	-.08
1c. Professional activities	-.01

---

N = 340

\*\* Significant at the .01 level or better

---

The relationship between a professional orientation and satisfaction with autonomy over instructional matters in the classroom is in the expected direction, and is statistically significant though the relationship is not strong only 2.25 per cent of the variance being explained. When the different dimensions of a professional orientation are examined, professional standards and satisfaction are associated. A client orientation and satisfaction are also significantly related but this relationship is no longer statistically significant when the effects of teachers' education, sex, and experience are controlled. While very little of the variance is explained, the relationship is in the expected direction, that is a higher level of professional orientation is associated with dissatisfaction.

From these results partial evidence is offered in favor of accepting hypothesis 1. Considering the

various dimensions of a professional orientation, professional standards appears to be the aspect of a professional orientation most closely associated with satisfaction with classroom autonomy. Hypothesis 1a is therefore accepted, but 1b and 1c cannot be accepted at the .05 level of significance. Although not all of the sub-hypotheses are accepted the main hypothesis is accepted.

The second hypothesis to be tested is as follows:

Hypothesis 2: A professional orientation is inversely related to satisfaction with influence on the hiring, firing and assignment of teachers.

Hypothesis 2a: Professional standards are inversely related to satisfaction with influence on the hiring, firing and assignment of teachers.

Hypothesis 2b: A client orientation is inversely related to satisfaction with influence on the hiring, firing and assignment of teachers.

Hypothesis 2c: Professional activities are inversely related to satisfaction with influence on the hiring, firing and assignment of teachers.

The method of testing these hypotheses is the same as those for testing the first hypotheses. The zero-order correlations are shown in Table 5.4. The effects of controlling for teachers' level of education, for sex and for experience are shown in Table 5.5 and the effects of controlling for these three variables combined in Table 5.6.

Table 5.4

Zero order correlations between professional orientation and satisfaction with influence on the hiring, firing and assignment of teachers.

	<u>Satisfaction</u>
2. Professional orientation	-.09*
2a. Professional standards	-.10*
2b. Client orientation	-.04
2c. Professional activities	-.03

---

N = 340

\* Significant at .05 level or better

---

Table 5.5

1st order partials between professional orientation and satisfaction with influence on the hiring, firing and assignment of teachers - controlling for teachers' education, sex and experience

	<u>Variable controlled</u>		
	<u>Education</u>	<u>Sex</u>	<u>Experience</u>
Satisfaction with:			
2. Professional orientation	-.09	-.09*	-.09*
2a. Professional standards	-.10*	-.10*	-.10*
2b. Client orientation	-.04	-.04	-.04
2c. Professional activities	-.02	-.02	-.03

---

N = 317

\* Significant at .05 level or better.



Table 5.6

3rd order partials between professional orientation and satisfaction with influence on the hiring, firing and assignment of teachers - controlling for teachers' education, sex and experience

---

	<u>Satisfaction</u>
2. Professional orientation	-.09
2a. Professional standards	-.10*
2b. Client orientation	-.04
2c. Professional activities	-.03

---

N = 317

\* Significant at .05 level or better

---

The zero-order correlations between professional orientation and satisfaction with influence on the hiring, firing and assignment of teachers does indicate that an inverse relationship exists between these two variables. The relationship is statistically significant although it is weak. However, after controlling for the effects of teachers' level of education the relationship is no longer statistically significant at the .05 level.

The relationship between the measure of professional standards and satisfaction is marginally stronger and also in the expected direction. The relationships between the other sub-indices of professionalism and satisfaction are not statistically significant. Controlling for the effects of education, sex and experience, and for

their combined effects does not affect the reported correlation of .10 between professional standards and satisfaction. Based on these results hypothesis 2, (the main hypothesis) is rejected. Only hypothesis 2a is accepted, hypotheses 2b and 2c cannot be accepted at the .05 level of significance.

Turning to the third specific hypothesis, restated in operational form it is as follows:

Hypothesis 3: Professional orientation is inversely related to satisfaction with influence on system wide change.

Hypothesis 3a: Professional standards are inversely related to satisfaction with influence on system wide change.

Hypothesis 3b: Client orientation is inversely related to satisfaction with influence on system wide change.

Hypothesis 3c: Professional activities are inversely related to satisfaction with influence on system wide change.

The results of testing these hypothesis are given in the following tables.

Table 5.7

Zero order correlations between professional orientation and satisfaction with influence on system wide change

	<u>Satisfaction</u>
3. Professional orientation	-.19**
3a. Professional standards	-.18**
3b. Client orientation	-.13**
3c. Professional activities	-.05

N = 317

\*\* Significant at the .01 level or better.

Table 5.8

1st order partials between professional orientation and satisfaction with influence on system wide change - controlling for education, sex, and experience

	<u>Variable controlled</u>		
	<u>Education</u>	<u>Sex</u>	<u>Experience</u>
Satisfaction with:			
3. Professional orientation	-.19**	-.19**	-.19**
3a. Professional standards	-.18**	-.18**	-.18**
3b. Client orientation	-.13**	-.13**	-.13**
3c. Professional activities	-.05	-.05	-.05

---

N = 317

\*\* Significant at the .01 level or better

---

Table 5.9

3rd order partials between professional orientation and satisfaction with influence on system wide change - controlling for education, sex and experience.

	<u>Satisfaction</u>
3. Professional orientation	-.19**
3a. Professional standards	-.18**
3b. Client orientation	-.13**
3c. Professional activities	-.05

---

N = 317

\*\* Significant at the .01 level or better

---

The relationship between a professional orientation and satisfaction with influence on system wide change is stronger than the relationships reported for the other measures of satisfaction though the correlation is still not high; only 3.6 per cent of the variance is explained. The relationship is in the expected direction, an increase in professional orientation being associated with a decline in satisfaction. This is consistent for the sub-indices of professional orientation--professional standards and client orientation--where the correlation is statistically significant.

Controlling for the effects of teachers' level of education, for sex, for experience, and for their combined effects makes no difference to these relationships.

These results favor the acceptance of hypothesis 3. The dimensions of a professional orientation most related to satisfaction with influence on system wide change are professional standards and client orientation. Accordingly hypotheses 3a and 3b are accepted. Hypothesis 3c was rejected since no significant relationship was shown between professional activities and satisfaction with influence on system wide change.

The fourth and final hypothesis relates to the relationship between orientation towards professionalism and satisfaction with the work setting, that is satisfaction relating to social relationships with colleagues and pupils.

Hypothesis 4: Professional orientation is not significantly related to satisfaction with the work setting.

Since it is hypothesised that satisfaction with the work setting would not be affected by the professional orientations of teachers, only the total score on professional orientation was considered initially. Since this was shown to be statistically insignificant the separate dimensions of a professional orientation were not considered. The results are shown in the following three tables.

Table 5.10

Zero order correlation between professional orientation and satisfaction with the work setting.

	<u>Satisfaction</u>
4. Professional orientation	-.03
<hr/>	
N = 340	
* Significant at the .05 level or better	

Table 5.11

1st order partial between professional orientation and  
satisfaction with the work setting -  
controlling for education, sex, and experience.

	<u>Variable controlled</u>		
	<u>Education</u>	<u>Sex</u>	<u>Experience</u>
Satisfaction with the work setting:			
4. Professional orientation	-.03	-.03	-.04

---

N = 317

\* Significant at the .05 level or better

---

Table 5.12

3rd order partial between professional orientation and  
satisfaction with the work setting -  
controlling for education, sex, and experience

	<u>Satisfaction</u>
4. Professional orientation	-.03

---

N = 317

\* Significant at the .05 level

---

The zero order correlation of .03 was not statistically significant and did not become significant when the effects of teachers' level of education, sex and experience were taken into account. As was argued above (cf. III-28) it was predicted that teachers' satisfaction with the work setting would not be affected by their professional orientation. Hypothesis 4 is therefore accepted.

### Summary of results

The general hypothesis, reformulated as a result of the discussion in Chapter III, was:

Desiring more control over their occupational activities in the school system, the more professionally oriented teachers will be less satisfied with their influence on the decision making structure of the school system than their less professionally oriented colleagues.

From this four specific hypotheses was adduced:

Hypothesis 1: A professional orientation is inversely related to satisfaction with classroom autonomy.

Hypothesis 2: A professional orientation is inversely related to satisfaction with influence on administrators regarding colleague assignments.

Hypothesis 3: A professional orientation is inversely related to satisfaction with administrative decisions regarding organizational change.

Hypothesis 4: A professional orientation is not significantly related to satisfaction with the work setting.

The specific hypotheses have now been indirectly tested in their operational form and the results obtained indicate that three of the four hypotheses can be accepted--hypotheses 1, 3 and 4. Although the second hypothesis could be accepted initially, the acceptance was not sustained after controlling for education (it was marginally over the .05 level). This indicates tentative acceptance of the general hypothesis though the evidence is not strongly in favor of acceptance. An inverse relationship between professional orientation and

satisfaction with the decision making structure of the school system has been shown to exist.

Each of the specific hypotheses detailed different dimensions of satisfaction with the decision making structure and in operationally defining a professional orientation it was broken down into three component parts, professional standards, client orientation, and professional activities. Considering each of these dimensions separately, professional standards is the sub-index consistently associated with each of the three dimensions of satisfaction. The questions making up this index reflect teachers' adherence to what they believe are professional standards, ideals, and practices, even in opposition to the school administration. A greater adherence to professional standards is apparently associated with less satisfaction with the opportunity to influence system wide changes. More influence is apparently desired over the goals and timing of system wide changes, identifying changes required, and also in implimenting changes.

The degree of adherence to professional standards was also the only aspect of a professional orientation that is associated with satisfaction with the way colleagues are assigned to positions. Teachers with high adherence to professional standards desire more influence over the hiring, firing, and assignments of their fellow teachers.



Adherence to professional standards is also related to satisfaction with the present level of autonomy over instructional matters in the classroom. Teachers with an inclination to act in accordance with what they perceive as professional standards, in opposition to the school administration, apparently desire more autonomy over choosing texts and materials to use in courses, deciding the objectives for the courses, and in deciding what they will teach.

Turning to the second dimension of a professional orientation, the sub-index dealing with a client orientation is not as closely associated as professional standards with satisfaction with decision making. It is correlated with satisfaction with influence on system wide change, and with satisfaction with classroom autonomy though controlling for teachers' education, sex and experience reduces the significance of the latter relationship below the .05 level. There is no correlation between a client orientation and satisfaction with colleague assignments. It would appear from this that teachers with a high professional orientation towards their clients (pupils) are less satisfied with their present level of influence on system wide change, possibly because they see decisions made higher up the hierarchy of the school administration as potentially the most influential in their effects on pupils.

Professional activities does not appear to be a useful dimension of professional orientation. It is not significantly related to any measure of satisfaction and therefore does not help to explain any part of the relationship between a professional orientation and satisfaction with the decision making structure of the school system.

The treatment of non-respondents by coding them at the mid-point of the score (3) has already been commented upon in the discussion of the methodology, (cf. IV-11). As was noted there, the effect was to introduce a conservative bias which may have attenuated the correlations. The measures particularly affected by this were the index score for client orientation, and the index score for satisfaction with system wide change, these involving the questions with the highest non-response rates. The relationships involving these measures may therefore be stronger than is expressed by the correlations.

Controlling for the effects of teachers' level of education, sex, and experience did not appear to have any dramatic effects on the results, although controlling for these factors did make some of the correlations statistically insignificant (such as that between a client orientation and satisfaction with classroom autonomy, and between the total professional orientation score and satisfaction with colleague assignments).

As was noted at the beginning of this chapter, the variation in education and in experience is not very great in this sample. From inspection of the cross-tabulations of experience of full-time teaching in this and other divisions there is no clear association between a professional orientation and experience. The professional orientation scores do not vary greatly between men and women. The lack of spread in these variables means that partialling out their effects is unlikely to have a large impact on the zero order correlations.

The results of testing the specific hypotheses have been reported in this chapter and on the basis of these results the general hypothesis has been tentatively accepted. In the next chapter these results will be evaluated further and discussed in terms of their implications.

## CHAPTER VI

### SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

#### Summary

This thesis set out to examine, both conceptually and empirically, the effects of a professional orientation upon the work satisfaction of teachers. The varying degree of professionalism among teachers as a group was considered. A professional orientation, it was argued, led to a desire for the power to control occupational activities, specifically to determine the needs of the client and the manner in which the needs shall be met. It follows from this that professionals desire to have substantial influence over decisions affecting these activities. The major barrier to the achievement of this was seen to be the nature of the school organization where decision making and control are assigned to specific non-teaching positions within an essentially bureaucratic form of organization. From this, it was argued that teachers holding a professional orientation will be less satisfied with their current degree of influence on decision making than are their less professionally oriented colleagues.

The basis of a professional orientation, with the consequent desire for power, was seen to be the adoption by teachers as a group of those characteristics that are deemed to be part of the public image of "a profession". They see themselves as experts in the field, and this self-regard is reinforced by such things as training, socialization into

the occupational group, membership of a professional association and the adoption of a code of ethics covering occupational practices.

Work satisfaction was considered, conceptually and empirically, to be derived from two separate sources; the structure of the organization which provides a guiding framework within which all occupational activities must be undertaken; and the general work context within which day to day social relationships occur. It was satisfaction with the structure of the organization which was considered crucial in examining the impact of a professional orientation upon satisfaction since it is the desire for influence on the decision making structure that determines occupational activities that is important to the professional worker. Satisfaction which comes from social relations at work was not seen as being directly affected by the professional orientation of the worker.

Studies relevant to the problem were reviewed in Chapter II. This review led to the conclusion that the relationship between a professional orientation and satisfaction among teachers is decidedly unclear. The various conceptualization of a professional orientation, the opportunity to participate in decision making, the incidence of conflict and militancy, and the factors relating to job satisfaction were discussed but without any clear consensus emerging from the literature as to the relationships between them. The findings of Simpson (1969)

and Corwin (1970) showed that the degree of professional orientation among teachers varies considerably. Simpson attributes this mainly to the feminine characteristics of the occupation, a conclusion supported by Pavalko (1970), and Weil and Weil (1971). Corwin, while noting the variation in professionalism, was more concerned with its implications, and focused on the clash between the growing desire for professional autonomy and control exercised by administrators in the hierarchy of the school organization. The control of the school system and its bureaucratic nature was also considered in several of the other studies discussed which assessed the degree to which control is, or is not, desired by teachers (e.g. Massé 1969, Alutto and Belesco 1972, Gans 1969). The relationship of the bureaucratic form of control to satisfaction was also considered by Horstein et al (1968), Bridges (1964) and Carpenter (1971).

The model used in this study in examining the relationship between a professional orientation and satisfaction was discussed in Chapter III. In this model the process of professionalization was viewed as a process of gaining power over occupational activities. In Freidson's terms it is an attempt to move from an administrative form of control by management over the work of the organization to the occupational principle where the work is controlled by the occupational members themselves. This approach was developed further in a model put forward

by Johnson (1972). Johnson states that professions can best be understood in terms of their sources of power and authority and the ways in which they use them. What he terms the mediative control of an occupation, it was argued, is particularly relevant to the teachers' situation. In this type of occupational control an outside body controls the work of the practitioners (teachers) and guarantees the attendance of the clients (pupils) to ensure the provision of what is deemed an essential service. An alternative form of control put forward by Johnson in his typology is collegiate control, under which the type of service and its provision is decided by the practitioners. It is towards collegiate control that teachers as a professionalizing group could be considered to be moving.

The claim to professional status by teachers can therefore be viewed as a move to gain the power to control their own occupational activities. It was argued, following from this, that the lack of opportunity to gain this control will cause professionally oriented teachers to be dissatisfied with the decision making structure of the school which presently governs their occupational activities. The general hypothesis formulated was--

Desiring more control over their occupational activities in the school system, the more professionally oriented teachers will be less satisfied with their influence on the decision making structure of the school system than their less professionally oriented colleagues.

From this general hypothesis a series of specific hypotheses were developed to indirectly test the general hypothesis. The specific hypotheses were as follows:

A professional orientation is inversely related to satisfaction with classroom autonomy.

A professional orientation is inversely related to satisfaction with influence on administrators regarding colleague assignments.

A professional orientation is inversely related to satisfaction with administrative decisions regarding organizational change.

A professional orientation is not significantly related to satisfaction with the work setting.

The operational definitions of the key variables and the operational form of these specific hypotheses were elaborated in Chapter IV. Operationally a professional orientation was measured by teachers' degree of adherence to professional standards, their exercise of initiative in relation to their clients, and their participation in professional activities.

Satisfaction was the other key variable. It was argued (based on the model) that teachers who adopt a professional orientation will desire to influence decisions affecting their working lives. Accordingly the lack of opportunity to influence decision making will be a prime source of dissatisfaction for these professionally oriented teachers. Satisfaction was conceptualized therefore in terms of satisfaction with the degree of influence on decision making. Operationally this type of satisfaction



was measured as the discrepancy between (a) the influence teachers felt they should have and (b) that which they perceived themselves as actually having.

The results of testing the specific hypothesis in their operational form were reported in Chapter V. A summary of these results is given in Table 6.1. The results showed a statistically significant negative relationship between a professional orientation and satisfaction with two aspects of the decision making structure of the school system as hypothesised. The relationship was shown to be in the expected direction, more professionally oriented teachers tend to be less satisfied with their influence on decisions relating to changes affecting the whole school system, and with their degree of autonomy in the classroom. The results also showed that it is teachers' adherence to professional standards rather than school system standards which is the dimension of a professional orientation most strongly associated with this dissatisfaction. However these relationships, as measured by the correlation coefficients, were not strong, only 3.6 per cent and 2.25 per cent of the variance being explained.

Satisfaction with the work setting was also considered. It was argued that satisfaction with this aspect of the teachers' working lives would not be linked to the professional orientation of teachers. This relationship was found to be as hypothesised. Teachers may be more or

Table 6.1Summary Table of Results

	.Zero order corr.	1st order partial corr. controlling for			3rd order partial corr.
		Educ.	Sex	Exp.	
<u>Hypothesis 1</u>					
Satisfaction with classroom autonomy with -					
1. Professional orientation	-.15**	-.15**	-.15**	-.15**	-.15**
1a. Professional standards	-.19**	-.19**	-.19**	-.19**	-.19**
1b. Client orientation	-.09*	-.09	-.09	-.09	-.08
1c. Professional activities	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01
<u>Hypothesis 2</u>					
Satisfaction with influence on hiring, firing, assignment of teachers with -					
2. Professional orientation	-.09*	-.09*	-.09*	-.09*	-.09
2a. Professional standards	-.10*	-.10*	-.10*	-.10*	-.10*
2b. Client orientation	-.04	-.04	-.04	-.04	-.04
2c. Professional activities	-.03	-.02	-.02	-.03	-.03
<u>Hypothesis 3</u>					
Satisfaction with influence on system wide change with -					
3. Professional orientation	-.19**	-.19**	-.19**	-.19**	-.19**
3a. Professional standards	-.18**	-.18**	-.18**	-.18**	-.18**
3b. Client orientation	-.13**	-.13**	-.13**	-.13**	-.13**
3c. Professional activities	-.05	-.05	-.05	-.05	-.05
<u>Hypothesis 4</u>					
Satisfaction with the work setting with -					
4. Professional orientation	-.03	-.03	-.03	-.04	-.03

\*\* Significant at the .01 level or better

\* Significant at the .05 level or better

less satisfied with their relationship with colleagues and pupils in their daily work but this is not linked with their professional aspirations.

### Limitations

There are a number of empirical limitations to the present study which should be noted. This study was a secondary analysis of the data collected in a survey questionnaire administered to a highly restricted sample of teachers--all those in the St. Boniface School Division. Thus the sample used was not a randomly drawn sample. For this reason the results of the study cannot be generalized beyond the St. Boniface School Division.

Because the analysis was a secondary analysis of the data, the measurement of the variables was limited by the nature of the data available. Thus a professional orientation could be measured by only three indices--professional standards, a client orientation, and professional activities--and only two dimensions of satisfaction could be considered. While the measures used appear to have validity in the light of previous research and of the theory, other measures are possible and might help to explain more fully the relationship between a professional orientation and satisfaction.

The controls used in this study were also limited by the data available. As an alternative to the teachers' level of education, the grade level taught might have been used as a control. As the response to the question on

education was better this was chosen. The poor response to the question on ethnic background eliminated the possibility of its use as a control even though it might be an influential factor on teachers' professional attitudes because of the substantial French speaking population of the School Division.

Other limitations to be noted include the fact that the questionnaires were returned to the Superintendent's office. This may have influenced the results in a conservative direction. (This was discussed more fully above--cf. IV-2). The overall response rate in this study (86 per cent) was good but the poor response from one high school (17%), which was the largest school (42 teachers) of the sixteen in the sample, was unfortunate and may have skewed the results somewhat. The coding of the non-responses to the mid-point of the score, discussed above (cf. IV-11), introduced a conservative bias which possibly has attenuated the correlations.

Resources were not available to investigate the peculiar circumstances in St. Boniface but this should be done in any sociological research to show that the results obtained are not a quirk of the particular situation pertaining in the school district under study. For example information was gained in the course of this study that the St. Boniface School Division had been dominated by a rather autocratic, powerful personality who though he is no longer influential may have created a more rigid structure for school management that would otherwise have existed.

### Conclusions

First, the results of this study indicate that there is a negative relationship between teachers' professional orientations and their satisfaction in so far as it relates to the organizational structure. However while it is demonstrated that a stronger orientation towards professionalism does lead to a diminution of teachers' satisfaction with the degree of their involvement in decision making it is hard to determine the full impact of the relationship. It is probable that if the study could be repeated, eliminating the limitations noted above, the relationship could be shown to be stronger. The conservative bias which became built into the present study by the method of collecting the data, and from the coding of the non-respondents, could be eliminated. Also the measurement of the variables could be developed further to cover more dimensions of a professional orientation.

Secondly, it can also be concluded from the results that, for the sample of teachers considered, it is valid to distinguish between satisfaction with the organizational structure, and satisfaction with social relationships in the work setting, and to say that a professional orientation tends to influence the former and not the latter. It was argued that a professional orientation involved a desire for influence on decision

making, and it follows that the opportunity to exercise influence would give satisfaction. It was also argued that satisfaction from this source can be separated analytically from satisfaction obtained from congenial working relationships with colleagues and pupils. The results supported this distinction, a professional orientation was shown not to be significantly related to satisfaction with the work setting.

Finally, for the sample studied, the teachers' sex, education, and experience did not appreciably modify the relationships between a professional orientation and job satisfaction. It is possible of course that teachers characteristics not studied, such as social class background, ethnic origin, or grade level taught may influence the relationship. As was explained above the data used did not provide the opportunity to control for these possible mediating factors.

Due to the limitations of this study noted previously and to the results obtained (with such a small amount of the variance being explained) all of these conclusions must be regarded as tentative and in need of further verification.

### Implications

Given the results obtained in this study any implications that can be drawn must be speculative. It is interesting to consider however both the practical implications of the argument that a growing orientation towards professionalism on the part of teachers will adversely affect

their satisfaction with the existing patterns of decision making in the school organization; and also to consider the alternative ways of conceptualizing the problem.

Considering the practical aspects first, what this thesis has examined is teachers' attitudes at one point in time in the evolution towards full professionalization. Teachers as a result of improved training and socialization increasingly think of themselves as experts and increasingly desire to make decisions which traditionally have been made by amateur elected bodies. To some extent accommodation has been made to these demands. Teachers are freer in many areas to make decisions and have been involved in committees to make policy decisions. This thesis sought to investigate whether at this point in time the accommodation has been successful or whether for professionally oriented teachers the current arrangements are unsatisfactory. The results obtained indicate a tendency towards the latter situation in the school district studied. It could well be that in a more intransigent school district where the professional challenge to authority is strongly resisted the results obtained from a similar study would show a much stronger relationship between teacher professionalism and their dissatisfaction with their influence on decision making in the school system.

As stressed in the discussion above the school system cannot be regarded as a particularly "tight" bureaucracy because within the system each unit does have some autonomy

and this has provided some flexibility for decision making functions to be shifted to the teachers. However if professionalization within the teaching occupation is seen as a process whereby teachers as a group endeavour to obtain total control over the practitioner/client relationship (as Johnson suggests in his deliniation of collegiate control; and Freidson defines his "occupational control") then it is predictable that there will be resistance from the current holders of decision making powers particularly in certain areas. Precisely in which areas the greatest resistance is likely to come is hard to predict but it could be speculated that the budget is one area where control by the teachers will be resisted on the grounds that the allocation of tax money should remain in the hands of elected representatives.

The above discussion has focused on the overall effects of the occupation of teaching becoming professionalized but it cannot be assumed that "being a professional" is equally significant to all groups of teachers. The data used in this study did not allow for much differentiation between different groups of teachers. The teachers' sex, amount of experience or education did not affect the results to any great degree. Drawing on the literature it would be reasonable to anticipate that the less experienced but more recently trained teachers would be less satisfied with the authority structure of the school than would their more experienced counterparts. Also, if Simpson's view



that the low professional standing to teaching is explained by the large number of females in the occupation is correct we would have expected males to be significantly less satisfied. This would not found in this study. Whether this finding accurately reflects the homogeneity of attitudes, beliefs and values beyond the sample studied remains to be established. It may also be that the current trends in the changing status of women has positively affected their attitudes towards professional standing in which case it would be reasonable to anticipate that this would be strongest among young female teachers.

Turning to the conceptualization of the problem as it was laid out here, and to possible alternative conceptualizations it would seem that viewing the process of professionalization as a process of gaining power over occupational activities (gaining control over the practitioner/client relationship) and a professional orientation as the individualized expression of this process is a fruitful one. It focuses on the aspect which appears to be the source of friction in large organizations, namely the current distribution of power. Professionals who regard themselves as such feel that autonomy in decision-making, especially in relation to their clients, is their right and that their expertise in a given field justifies this right. Potentially then the "semi-professional" occupations are adopting this attitude and this is the aspect of professionalization which constitutes the challenge to the existing authority structure. The

problem studied involves a potential conflict situation, where a professionalizing group is attempting to move from the situation where control is exercised over their work by an administrative group to that where they exercise influence over decisions made relating to their own occupational activities.

The "power definition" of professionalism, combined with the conceptualization of the school system as a bureaucracy (although admittedly a rudimentary form of bureaucracy) has heuristic value. It highlights the fact that decision making is allocated to specific positions within the school organization and thereby enables the researcher to specify the particular areas where the bureaucratic authority might be challenged by the desire for power on the part of teachers.

The measure of professionalism used in this thesis emphasised the degree to which teachers exercise their own judgment in relation to their pupil clients rather than following school rules, in line with this conceptualization of professionalism as a process of gaining power to control occupational activities. Alternative ways of measuring professionalism might have been taken. One would be to define professionalism in terms of the various traits deemed to be "professional" and to rank teachers as professional or non-professional depending on the degree to which they have these traits. To define professionalism in terms of the desire for power to control the practitioner/client

relationship and then to measure it in terms of the individual teachers' stated willingness to exercise their judgment in relation to occupational matters focuses on the aspect of professionalism which is at issue. To define professionalism in terms of a collection of traits one of which would be a desire for autonomy appears somewhat illogical. As argued in Chapter I there is no rationale for including one trait, or excluding another, and the inclusion or exclusion of one trait may alter the results of the study. Alternatively to take a functionalist approach and concentrate on the place in the total society or system occupied by the professional does not appear to highlight the point at issue but rather to eliminate the possibility of examining the conflict leading to change.

Apart from the question of definitions there are alternative conceptual frameworks which might be used to analyse the problem. Each might be used to advantage though the aspects emphasised will be different. To cite only one example of an alternative framework, a systems model of the school system would emphasise the interaction between the different inputs to the system and the adjustments which must take place within the system to restore equilibrium if this equilibrium becomes disrupted. Using this approach it would be possible to trace the adjustments of the system to the disruptions caused by the desire for greater decision making authority by teachers. The emphasis is on the interaction between the different elements in the system and the adjustments made by each,

rather than on the conflict between two opposing parties which is emphasised in the model used in this study.

In summary it would appear that the conceptualization of a professional orientation as basically a desire to control the practitioner/client relationship is indeed a viable approach to the study of an occupation moving towards professional status. The fact that the direction, if not the intensity of the relationship of professionalism to job satisfaction would be correctly hypothesised, encourages one to speculate that with refined sampling and methodology a great deal more insight into the dynamic nature of professionalism can be obtained using this model. This is not to suggest that the model as presented is in itself adequate, much further work needs to be done. It is suggested, however, that the promise shown in this limited analysis is sufficient to warrant the time and effort necessary to expand upon what seems to be a fruitful "first approximation" of the social and psychological characteristics of professionalism among teachers.

#### Suggestions for Future Research

Suggestions for further research are implied in many of the above comments. The model used in analysing the relationship between a professional orientation and satisfaction with influence on the decision making structure was drawn from both Freidson (1973) and Johnson (1972). The model points to the key factor in the relationship between practitioners (teachers) and clients (pupils).-

that is the control exercised over that relationship. The institutionalized form that control takes is the characteristic which Johnson used to delineate his types of occupational control. While focusing on the control over occupational activities is useful in considering the development of occupations, further refinement of the model would help. For example, there is a need to pinpoint areas of tension in the control structure of occupations, both those which lead to change, and those in which change is resisted. If turning an occupation into a profession is seen as a historical process, as Johnson stresses (Johnson 1972:47), then it follows that a model should be developed to indicate not only the points of tension but also the process by which they lead to change.

If the study were replicated random sampling techniques should be used making it possible to generalize the results. Efforts should be made to design better methods to measure the variables by developing the questions asked to cover other dimensions of professionalism and satisfaction. From the findings of this study it is suggested that the questions relating to a professional orientation could probe more deeply in the areas of teachers' professional standards, and into their client orientation. Although the latter did not prove to be a very strong measure in this study it did appear to have some relationship to satisfaction. Further questions developed in this area might reveal it to be a stronger measure of professionalism. Other areas of professionalism which

could be probed (based on those used in other studies e.g. Simpson 1969; Corwin 1970) are the use of colleagues as a reference group, the degree to which a professional atmosphere in the school affects teachers, and the career commitment of teachers.

Further research should perhaps place more emphasis than this study did on the characteristics of the teachers. Besides controlling for the influence of teachers' sex, education, and experience other characteristics should be considered such as the teachers' social background, ethnic background, the subject taught, and whether they are elementary or secondary school teachers. There are all characteristics which other studies have shown to be related to teachers' attitudes towards professionalism.

This study has been concerned solely with attitudes, namely the teachers' attitude towards professionalism and their satisfaction with the decision making aspects of their job situation. As an extension of this research it would be interesting to investigate how far attitudes affect behavior. Whether attitudes can be directly related to behavior is problematic. Ehrlich has pointed out that it is necessary to examine the interpersonal conditions under which people are willing or unwilling to disclose their attitudes (Ehrlich 1969:33). He suggests that the exact behavior that compliments a specific attitude is not always clear; that the lapse of time between the actor's perception of the situation and his necessity to act influences his action;

and also that various situational constraints may affect an actor's action.

Ehrlich writes as a social psychologist but the points he makes are well taken from a sociological point of view. It would be interesting to consider in future research the situations in which teachers' professional orientations are expressed in their actions and the effect that this expression of attitudes has on their satisfaction.

Corwin (1970) for example measured teachers' professional orientations and correlated these with their involvement in conflicts. He also correlated teachers' involvement in conflict situations with their level of satisfaction. Research of this nature would be a useful extension of the research reported in this study and would clarify the conditions under which attitudes of a given type are related to behaviors of a given type.

There is strong evidence in the existing literature as to the influence of a professional orientation on conflict, on attitudes towards militancy, on a desire for influence, and these all appear to have implications for teachers' morale and satisfaction. Further development along both theoretical and methodological lines as suggested should lead to a clearer understanding of the effect that a professional orientation has on job satisfaction within the school system.

## APPENDICES



THE QUESTIONNAIRE

The following pages show the questions utilized from the questionnaire submitted to all teachers in the St. Boniface School Division.

PLEASE REMEMBER THAT THIS QUESTIONNAIRE IS ANONYMOUS.  
DO NOT SIGN YOUR NAME ANYWHERE IN THIS BOOKLET.

1. WHAT IS THE HIGHEST LEVEL OF EDUCATION WHICH YOU HAVE COMPLETED? (Circle One)

Less than a bachelor's degree . . . . . 1  
Bachelor's degree . . . . . 2  
Master's degree . . . . . 3  
Master's degree plus 30 hours . . . . . 4  
Doctorate . . . . . 5

2. WHAT IS YOUR SEX? (Circle One)

Male . . . . . 1  
Female . . . . . 2

3. WHAT IS YOUR ETHNIC BACKGROUND?

Ethnic Background: \_\_\_\_\_

4. PRIOR TO THIS YEAR, HOW MANY YEARS OF EXPERIENCE HAVE YOU HAD AS A:

	<u>In this Division</u>	<u>In other Division</u>
a. Full-time teacher . . . . .	_____ years.	_____ years.
b. Part-time teacher . . . . .	_____ years.	_____ years.
c. Full-time administrator . . . . .	_____ years.	_____ years.
d. Part-time administrator . . . . .	_____ years.	_____ years.

5. PRIOR TO THIS YEAR, HOW MANY YEARS OF EXPERIENCE HAD YOU HAD IN THIS SCHOOL AS A:

a. Full-time teacher . . . . . \_\_\_\_\_ years.  
b. Part-time teacher . . . . . \_\_\_\_\_ years.  
c. Full-time administrator . . . . . \_\_\_\_\_ years.  
d. Part-time administrator . . . . . \_\_\_\_\_ years.

6. WHAT IS THE NAME OF THE SCHOOL IN WHICH YOU ARE CURRENTLY EMPLOYED?

Name of School: \_\_\_\_\_

7. PLEASE INDICATE THE GRADE LEVEL (OR LEVELS) WHICH YOU ARE PRESENTLY TEACHING BY CIRCLING THE APPROPRIATE NUMBERS BELOW.

(Grade), K 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12

9. OF THE GOALS LISTED IN QUESTION 8 (a-m), WHICH ONE DO YOU CONSIDER TO BE: ...3

a. Most Important: a b c d e f g h i j k l m (Circle One)

b. Best Accomplished By This School: a b c d e f g h i j k l m (Circle One)

10. TEACHERS HAVE A VARIETY OF BELIEFS REGARDING THEIR RESPONSIBILITIES TO STUDENTS AND TO THE SCHOOL EMPLOYING THEM. SOMETIMES THESE BELIEFS COME INTO CONFLICT. BELOW ARE THREE STATEMENTS ON THE SUBJECT. PLEASE INDICATE (A) THE EXTENT TO WHICH YOU "AGREE" OR "DISAGREE" WITH THE STATEMENTS, AND (B) THE EXTENT TO WHICH YOU BELIEVE EACH STATEMENT REFLECTS SUCH BEHAVIOR IN YOUR SCHOOL.

STATEMENTS	The extent to which you "agree" or "disagree" with the statements. 5 = I strongly disagree 4 = I disagree 3 = I am undecided 2 = I agree 1 = I strongly agree	The extent to which you believe each statement reflects such behavior in your school. 5 = I strongly disagree 4 = I disagree 3 = I am undecided 2 = I agree 1 = I strongly agree
<p>1. It should be permissible for the teacher to violate a rule if he/she is sure that the best interest of the student will be served in doing so.</p> <p>a. At my school this is permissible.</p>	<p>(Circle One)</p> <p>5 4 3 2 1</p> <p>5 4 3 2 1</p>	<p>(Circle One)</p> <p>5 4 3 2 1</p> <p>5 4 3 2 1</p>
<p>2. Unless she is satisfied that it is best for the student, a teacher should not do what she is told to do.</p> <p>a. At my school, typically, teachers do not do what they are told unless they are convinced that it is best for the student.</p>	<p>5 4 3 2 1</p> <p>5 4 3 2 1</p>	<p>5 4 3 2 1</p> <p>5 4 3 2 1</p>
<p>3. A good teacher should not do anything that he believes may jeopardize the interests of his students regardless of who tells him to or what the rules state.</p> <p>a. At my school, good teachers do not.</p>	<p>5 4 3 2 1</p> <p>5 4 3 2 1</p>	<p>5 4 3 2 1</p> <p>5 4 3 2 1</p>

11. ALL TEACHERS HOLD BELIEFS REGARDING APPROPRIATE BEHAVIOR IN THE TEACHER'S ROLE. SOMETIMES THESE BELIEFS COME INTO CONFLICT WITH ADMINISTRATIVE REQUIREMENTS. BELOW ARE SIX STATEMENTS REGARDING SUCH BEHAVIOR AND/OR POTENTIAL CONFLICTS WITH ADMINISTRATIVE REQUIREMENTS. PLEASE INDICATE THE EXTENT TO WHICH YOU "AGREE" OR "DISAGREE" WITH THEM. ALSO, WHERE APPROPRIATE, PLEASE INDICATE THE EXTENT TO WHICH YOU AGREE THAT THE STATEMENT REFLECTS TYPICAL TEACHER BEHAVIOR IN YOUR SCHOOL. (PLEASE CIRCLE THE APPROPRIATE ABBREVIATION.)

STATEMENT	I Strongly Disagree	I Disagree	I am Undecided	I Agree	I Strongly Agree
	<u>SD</u>	<u>D</u>	<u>U</u>	<u>A</u>	<u>SA</u>
1. Teachers should try to live up to what they think are the standards of their profession even if the administration or the community does not seem to respect them.	SD	D	U	A	SA
a. This is typically true of the teachers at my school.	SD	D	U	A	SA
2. One primary criterion of a good school should be the degree of respect that it commands from other teachers around the province.	SD	D	U	A	SA
3. A teacher should try to put his standards and ideals of good teaching into practice even if the rules or procedures of the school prohibit it.	SD	D	U	A	SA
a. At my school typically teachers do give priority to their professional ideals.	SD	D	U	A	SA
4. Teachers should subscribe to and diligently read the standard professional journals.	SD	D	U	A	SA
a. This is the case at my school.	SD	D	U	A	SA
5. Teachers should be active members of at least one professional teaching association, and attend most conferences and meetings of the association.	SD	D	U	A	SA
a. This is the case at my school.	SD	D	U	A	SA
6. A teacher should consistently practice his/her ideas of the best educational practices even though the administration prefers other views.	SD	D	U	A	SA
a. At my school, typically, teachers do give priority to their own ideas.	SD	D	U	A	SA

18. IN EVERY SCHOOL, THERE ARE SOME DIMENSIONS OF THE TEACHING ROLE THAT ADD TO THE TEACHER'S SATISFACTION WITH THE JOB -- AND OTHER DIMENSIONS THAT DETRACT. LISTED BELOW ARE SEVERAL DIMENSIONS THAT MIGHT AFFECT YOUR JOB SATISFACTION IN THE SCHOOL. PLEASE INDICATE HOW YOU FEEL ABOUT THE FOLLOWING ITEMS. (IN ANSWERING THESE QUESTIONS, PLEASE INSERT THE APPROPRIATE NUMBER IN EACH BOX.)

	How satisfied are you with these dimensions of your job? 5 = Very Satisfied 4 = Somewhat Satisfied 3 = Neutral 2 = Somewhat Dissatisfied 1 = Very Dissatisfied
a. The level of competence of most of the other teachers in this school.	<input type="text"/>
b. The method employed in this school for making decisions on curriculum matters.	<input type="text"/>
c. The method employed in this school for making decisions on pupil discipline matters.	<input type="text"/>
d. The attitude of the students toward the faculty in this school.	<input type="text"/>
e. The manner in which the teachers and the administrative staff work together in this school.	<input type="text"/>
f. The cooperation and help which I receive from my superiors.	<input type="text"/>
g. The educational philosophy which seems to prevail in this school.	<input type="text"/>
h. The evaluation process which my superiors use to judge my effectiveness as a teacher.	<input type="text"/>
i. The level of competence of my superiors.	<input type="text"/>
j. The adequacy of the supplies available for me to use in my teaching in this school.	<input type="text"/>
k. The academic performance of the students in this school.	<input type="text"/>
l. The amount of time which is available to me while I am at school for my personal professional growth.	<input type="text"/>

	<p>How satisfied are you with these dimensions of your job?</p> <p>5 = Very Satisfied 4 = Somewhat Satisfied 3 = Neutral 2 = Somewhat Dissatisfied 1 = Very Dissatisfied</p>
m. The extent to which I am informed by my superiors about school matters affecting me.	<input type="text"/>

22. NOW PLEASE THINK IN TERMS OF YOUR OWN DEGREE OF INFLUENCE IN THESE SAME DECISIONS AND INDICATE 1) HOW MUCH INFLUENCE YOU HAVE IN THESE DECISIONS, AND 2) HOW MUCH INFLUENCE YOU FEEL YOU SHOULD HAVE. (In answering these questions, please circle the appropriate number).

Decisions	How much influence <u>do</u> you have?	How much influence <u>should</u> you have?
	0 = No Influence 1 = Very Little Influence 2 = Some Influence 3 = Moderate Influence 4 = A Great Deal of Influence	
a. Selecting required texts and other materials.	(Circle One) 0 1 2 3 4	(Circle One) 0 1 2 3 4
b. Establishing the objectives for each course.	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4
c. Determining the concepts and information to be taught in a particular course.	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4
d. Determining daily lesson plans and activities.	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4
f. Hiring new teachers.	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4
g. Deciding whether to renew a teacher's contract.	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4
h. Making specific faculty assignments.	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4
i. Planning new buildings and facilities.	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4
j. Setting the time schedule and goals to be achieved for a system-wide change.	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4
k. Identifying types of system-wide changes to be implemented.	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4
l. Working out details for implementing system-wide changes.	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4

NON-RESPONSE FOR QUESTIONS USED IN THIS STUDY

Total sample = 340 respondents.

<u>Question</u>	<u>Non-response</u>	<u>Index of which question is a part</u>
10-1	11	Client orientation
2	25	" "
3	25	" "
<hr/>		
11-1	16	Professional standards
2	18	(not used)
3	18	Professional standards
4	12	Professional activities
5	12	Professional activities
6	15	Professional standards
<hr/>		
18-a	11	Satisfaction with work setting
b	13	(not used)
c	10	Satisfaction with work setting
d	9	" "
e	8	(not used)
f	6	(not used)
g	10	Satisfaction with work setting
h	22	(not used)
i	11	(not used)
j	8	(not used)
k	10	(not used)
l	13	(not used)
m	7	(not used)





RESPONSE RATE BY SCHOOL

<u>School</u>	<u>Number of Staff</u>	<u>Number of Respondents</u>	<u>Percent Response</u>
Frontenac School	33	32	97%
Marion	25	25	100%
Prendergast	19	18	95%
Tache	12	7	58%
General Vanier	26	26	100%
Howden	25	22	88%
Van Belleghem	27	26	96%
Lacerte	34	34	100%
William Russell	10	5	50%
J.H. Burns Collegiate	25	15	60%
Pierre Radisson	24	21	88%
Boliveau	50	35	70%
Provencher	25	21	84%
Louis Riel Collegiate	35	32	91%
Windsor Park Collegiate	42	7	17%
College	<u>20</u>	<u>12</u>	60%
	432*	340	

\* Total includes the principals.

EDUCATION

<u>Level of Education</u>	<u>Number of Teachers</u>	<u>%</u>
Less than a B.A.	138	40.6
B.A.	171	50.3
M.A.	12	3.5
M.A. plus 30 hours	8	2.4
Ph.D.	-	
(Non-response)	<u>11</u>	<u>3.2</u>
	340	100.0

SEX

	<u>Number of Teachers</u>	<u>%</u>
Male	102	30.0
Female	219	64.4
(Non-response)	<u>19</u>	<u>5.6</u>
	340	100.0

YEARS OF EXPERIENCE - FULL-TIME TEACHINGExperience - full-time teaching in St. Boniface School Division

<u>Years of experience</u>	<u>Number of Teachers</u>	<u>Percentage</u>
0	63	18.5
1	46	13.5
2	27	7.9
3	20	5.9
4	39	11.5
5	31	9.1
6	27	7.9
7	24	7.1
8	11	3.2
9	10	2.9
10	11	3.2
11	5	1.5
12	4	1.2
13	4	1.2
14	7	2.1
15	6	1.8
16	2	.6
19	1	.3
21	1	.3
22	1	.3
	<u>340</u>	<u>100.0</u>

## YEARS OF EXPERIENCE - FULL TIME TEACHING

Experience - full time teaching in other divisions

<u>Years of experience</u>	<u>Number of Teachers</u>	<u>Percentage</u>
0	148	43.5
1	35	10.3
2	36	10.6
3	23	6.8
4	19	5.6
5	9	2.6
6	16	4.7
7	9	2.6
8	8	2.4
9	3	.9
10	8	2.4
11	2	.6
12	5	1.5
13	2	.6
14	2	.6
15	5	1.5
17	1	.3
18	1	.3
19	2	.6
21	1	.3
22	1	.3
23	1	.3
29	1	.3
30	1	.3
38	1	.3
	<u>340</u>	<u>100.0</u>

Factor Matrix - Varimax Rotation, Factor Loadings  
on questions relating to Professional Orientation

<u>Question</u>	<u>Factor Loading</u>		
	<u>Factor 1</u>	<u>Factor 2</u>	<u>Factor 3</u>
It should be permissible for the teacher to violate a rule if he/she is sure that the best interests of the students will be served in doing so.	.087	.568	.054
Unless she is satisfied that it is best for the student a teacher should not do what she is told to do.	.060	.591	.035
A good teacher should not do anything that he believes may jeopardize the interests of his students regardless of who tells him to or what the rules state.	.214	.571	.024
Teachers should try to live up to what they think are the standards of their profession even if the administration or the community does not seem to respect them.	.499	.128	.104
One primary criterion of a good school should be the degree of respect it commands from other teachers around the province.	.191	-.107	.146
A teacher should try to put his standards and ideals of good teaching into practice even if the rules or procedures of the school prohibit it.	.832	.227	-.084
Teachers should subscribe to and diligently read the standard professional journals.	.014	.026	.727
Teachers should be active members of at least one professional teaching association, and attend most conferences and meetings of the association.	.118	.118	.578
A teacher should consistently practice his/her ideas of the best educational practice even though the administration prefers other views.	.463	.331	.136
Percentage of variance explained	56.1%	25.5%	18.4%

Factor Matrix - Varimax Rotation, Factor Loadings  
on questions relating to satisfaction.

<u>Question</u>	<u>Factor Loading</u>	
	<u>Factor 1</u>	<u>Factor 2</u>
The level of competence of most of the other teachers in this school.	.234	.493
The method employed in this school for making decisions on curriculum matters.	.538	.367
The method employed in this school for making decisions on pupil discipline matters.	.442	.536
The attitude of the students towards the faculty of this school.	.161	.714
The manner in which the teachers and administrative staff work together in this school.	.679	.382
The cooperation and help which I receive from my superiors.	.759	.302
The educational philosophy which seems to prevail in this school.	.546	.476
The evaluation process which my superiors use to judge my effectiveness as a teachers.	.649	.227
The level of competence of my superiors.	.736	.342
The adequacy of the supplies available to me to use in my teaching in this school.	.374	.192
The academic performance of the students in this school.	.333	.420
The amount of time which is available to me while I am at school for my personal professional growth.	.510	.208
The extent to which I am informed about school matters affecting me.	.731	.257
Percentage of variance explained	91.9%	8.1%

Factor Matrix - Varimax Rotation, Factor Loadings  
on questions relating to perceived influence

<u>Question</u>	<u>Factor Loading</u>		
	<u>Factor 1</u>	<u>Factor 2</u>	<u>Factor 3</u>
How much influence <u>do</u> you have?			
Selecting required texts and other materials.	.193	.162	.623
Establishing the objectives for each course.	.105	.090	.880
Determining the concepts and information to be taught in a particular course.	.084	.115	.784
Determining daily lesson plans and activities.	.001	-.039	.448
Hiring new teachers	.221	.783	.086
Deciding whether to renew a teacher's contract.	.137	.813	.035
Making specific faculty assignments.	.309	.653	.080
Planning new buildings and facilities.	.384	.412	.136
Setting the time schedule and goals to be achieved for a system-wide change.	.815	.312	.147
Identifying the types of system-wide changes to be implimented.	.917	.212	.101
Working out details for implimenting system-wide changes.	.807	.219	.088
Percentage of variance explained	60.3%	25.1%	14.7%



Factor Matrix - Varimax Rotation, Factor Loadings  
on questions relating to desired influence

<u>Question</u>	<u>Factor Loading</u>		
	<u>Factor 1</u>	<u>Factor 2</u>	<u>Factor 3</u>
How much influence <u>should</u> you have?			
Selecting required texts and other materials.	.258	.078	.661
Establishing the objectives for each course	.182	.145	.794
Determining the concepts and information to be taught in a particular course.	.116	.102	.771
Determining the daily lesson plans and activities.	-.048	.003	.409
Hiring new teachers.	.197	.870	.129
Deciding whether to renew a teacher's contract.	.180	.751	.101
Making specific faculty assignments.	.403	.559	.032
Planning new buildings and facilities.	.530	.438	.131
Setting the time schedule and goals to be achieved for a system-wide change.	.822	.225	.176
Identifying the types of system-wide changes to be implimented.	.944	.184	.094
Working out the details for implimenting system-wide changes.	.785	.255	.130
Percentage of variance explained	63.6%	22%	14.4%

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